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EDUCATIONAL BOOKS.

HISTORICAL SERIES.—No. I.

143 THE

HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

PUBLISHED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF
THE COMMITTEE OF GENERAL LITERATURE AND EDUCATION,
APPOINTED BY THE SOCIETY FOR PROMOTING
CHRISTIAN KNOWLEDGE.

SIXTH REVISED EDITION.

23 LONDON:

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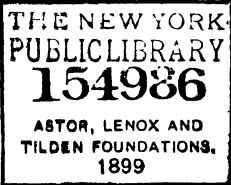
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PREFACE

TO THE REVISED EDITION.

IN the revision of this short History of England, a good many alterations and, it is to be hoped, improvements have been made, but the general tone of the work itself has been, scrupulously preserved.

A few words only are necessary to state the nature of the changes which have been introduced.

1. The Geography has been carefully corrected; several additional names have been inserted in the text, and two maps have been framed with the express object of illustrating the narrative. That of ancient Britain is intended to serve several purposes: to identify the chief ancient names in our island with their modern representatives which accompany them; to trace the course of the principal Roman roads, and the lines of the great Roman fortifications, and to supply the wants of those who, though their geography is chiefly confined to the modern atlas, desire to know somewhat of their own country in older times. The other map has a character of its own. It is intended purely to suit this work. Accordingly, though other names of importance may be given as well, it will be found to contain the cities, rivers, or remarkable localities mentioned in these pages.

This will account for the occurrence of such names as Flodden, Ravensburgh, Clarendon, Runnamede, and the like, for which ordinary maps of England are searched in vain. It should be observed that ranges of hills are not traced on this map. The omission has been made intentionally. The surface was too crowded with names to allow them to be inserted compatibly with clearness.

2. The Chronology has received a good deal of attention. The dates heretofore given have been generally verified, and very many have been added. Tables of the Royal Genealogy, in which nearly every name mentioned in the history will be found, are inserted at intervals. Names are omitted which are of no historical importance, and which would therefore have tended rather to confuse than to assist the scholar.

3. The remaining additions which have been made to the text relate principally to the history of the Church of England. It has been the endeavour of the Reviser to elucidate this at every turn. Accordingly, he has carefully noted whatever is probably ascertained concerning it before Augustine's mission, and, after that date, endeavoured to trace, as well the aggressions made upon the Church from without, as the corruptions which overspread it from within. The partial attempts at Reformation before the period of Henry VIII. have been recorded; and the imperfections of such attempts, even when most earnest, have not been unnoticed. A remarkable instance of this occurs in p. 50; where a most laudable endeavour to promote popular instruction is shown to have been sadly foiled by an over-refinement in the matters on which instruction is to be given. "Let preaching be frequent, and in unlearned language," said the Lambeth Synod in 1281. Thus far all was

well; but, unfortunately, amongst the topics mentioned as necessary to be taught, was the modern statement that "there are Seven Sacraments." The Reformation, and its developments—the chief translations of the Scriptures—the successive revisions of the Prayer Book—the Educational and Missionary efforts of the Church—the foundation of her chief Cathedrals, Colleges, and Public Schools—the character and actions of several of her Archbishops—her relation at different times to the Roman Communion—to the Christian Societies of organization similar to her own, in Scotland and America, and to those bodies in England which have quitted her pale, are recorded in their proper place. A new feature of this edition, and it is believed not an uninteresting or useless one, is the mention of the Archbishops of Canterbury, at the head of each reign, from William the Conqueror to our present Sovereign.

4. No attempt has been made to continue the narrative after the year 1820. The Author paused at this date; and the Reviser has followed his example. Reasons which appear sufficient to warrant this limitation are given in pp. 179—181. It seems almost superfluous to say, that indifference to great principles has not been among the motives which have influenced them.

5. Some selections from English Poets have been appended to the volume. It is hoped that these will be useful to assist the memory, to serve as a *praxis* upon the narrative, and to give more life and spirit to the study of our English annals than can be expected in a mere compendium. It is possible, too, that many young persons may be thus led to read poetry for the first time; and others, to read it intelligently—that is, with a due regard to the events and

persons which it introduces. They will be pleased at recognizing in Shakspeare, or Gray, or Wordsworth, or Bulwer, the personages of whose acts or pretensions, as treated in the narrative, they have perhaps become almost tired; and it may not unreasonably be hoped that the poetry of Edward's Welsh campaign, of the rival Roses, of the sullen Curfew, of the Invincible Armada, will induce them to make further researches into writers of such transforming power. It may be observed also, that the teacher would find the passages given, and others which his own reading would furnish, valuable for examination, without being dry. That young person must be tolerably acquainted with the course of English History, who, in his class, can accompany Gray's bard with a clear account of the characters and events mentioned in it: and his class-fellows would not be fatigued during the process, because the questions and answers would arise naturally out of the passage on which they are occupied at the time.

6. Two inquiries relating to this history remain:—Why are so many events, and persons, and places mentioned? and, Why are no more mentioned than occur in these pages? To the former of these inquiries it may be replied, Several events are mentioned which are treated of more slightly than they would at first seem to deserve: but it is hoped that, in many instances, curiosity will be thus excited, and that the scholar will be induced to pursue his inquiries further, by finding that much remains to be known on several things in which he has been made to take an interest. Besides, it is much more easy to read a larger history when one has already become somewhat acquainted with the principal *dramatis personæ*, the plot, and the scenery, than when the greater part of these are quite strange and unknown. England would be a new and

bewildering country to a traveller who, before he set out, had never heard of any but the county towns. He set out to see the towns of England; but here are other towns of which no notice is taken in his Guide-Book. "Surely," he would say, "I ought to have heard of Manchester as well as Lancaster, of Birmingham as well as Warwick. The Guide-Book I studied was a most defective one." The case of the historical student is somewhat similar. Give him a meagre compendium, and, when he commences a larger history, he is discouraged—he is undertaking an entirely new study; but let him be tolerably furnished beforehand, and he cheerfully fills up a drawing of which he has already sketched the outline.

And an answer is thus applied to the second question, Why are no more events, and persons, and places mentioned, than occur in these pages? The history is written for youthful students, of whom two things must be said; 1st, Their memory must not be taxed unreasonably; and 2ndly, They must be left to fill in their history for themselves. The young like to make discoveries—to compose, in fact—and to feel that they are doing so. This they can never do, if every thing that can be said on a subject is laid before them at once. They love to add something here and there for themselves—to complete, by degrees, their knowledge of an event or course of events, or their conception of an historical personage. They like (if we may borrow an analogy from the fine arts) to have laid before them, at first, Wilkie's original sketch of one of his celebrated pictures; then, his second draught, containing perhaps some new figure, and bringing out some exquisite trait of character not visible before; then his more matured drawing with nicer touches still; and last of all, his finished effort of art. It is hoped that this will account for, if not

excuse, the occasional want of detail, which, after all, a compendium like the present must obviously exhibit.

7. No effort has been made to write an original history, or to display learning and research. The aim both of the Author and of the Reviser has been to exhibit simply and plainly the leading outlines of the History of a Land, in which God has graciously planted the Church wherein they labour. They will be satisfied, if, while they have performed their task faithfully, they have sometimes and in some degree directed their readers to "the Most High," who "ruleth in the kingdom of men, and giveth it to whomsoever He will."

March 21, 1849.

P.S. The Reviser has nothing to add to his statement made above, save an expression of thankfulness that the Revised Edition has been called for year by year since 1849, and a hope that it may continue to be useful to the young.

Feb. 10, 1853.

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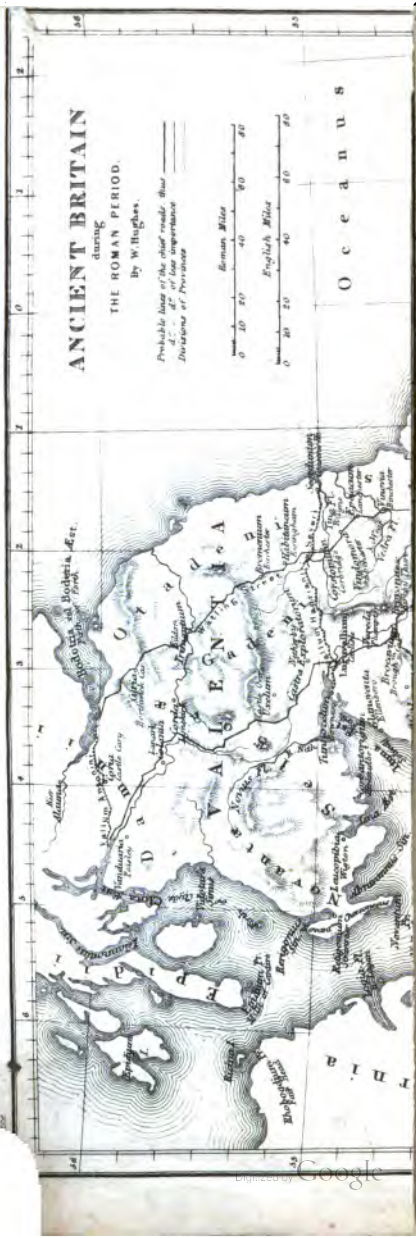
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ANCIENT BRITAIN

during
THE ROMAN PERIOD.

By W. Hughes.

Possible lines of the chief roads, show
divisions of the importance
Divisions of Province

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O C E A N U S

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London: Published by the Society for promoting Christian Knowledge, 1849

HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

CHAPTER I.

BRITAIN UNDER THE ROMANS.

From B.C. 55. to A.D. 409.

ABOUT fifty-five years before the birth of our blessed Saviour, Julius Cæsar, who at that time commanded the Roman armies in Gaul, resolved on attempting the conquest of the country now called England. Its name at that time was Britannia. The Romans had become masters of a great part of the world then known; and the ambition of Cæsar made him desirous of such glory as could be gained in the opinion of his countrymen, by adding another province to their empire. It is thus that God brings to pass his own gracious purposes, by the very schemes in which men engage for their own selfish ends. The extent of the Roman empire was very favourable to the spreading of that holy faith which was then about to be preached: inasmuch as it made distant nations acquainted with each other's language, and introduced the customs of civilized life where they had been before unknown. When we look back, therefore, on this invasion of the Romans, we may regard it as one means by which God began to break up the cruel superstition which then prevailed in this island, and secretly prepared the way for his great design, of planting one branch of his holy Church in this favoured country.

At the time of Cæsar's invasion, England was inhabited by rude and warlike tribes, who were governed in a great degree by priests, called Druids. Their religious rites, remarkable for the veneration of the mistletoe, were chiefly practised in the groves of oak that then covered the country; and were abominable for the cruelty with which

prisoners taken in war were burnt at their sacred places in vast cases or frames of basket-work. The Druids also possessed temples of rude and gigantic construction, ruins of which still remain in different parts of England. One of the most famous of these is Stonehenge, which stands on Salisbury Plain. It is composed of vast masses of rock, placed in circles; within it is an altar, and around it, for some distance, are *barrows* or mounds of earth, to mark the spots where chieftains or warriors have been buried.

Trained to disregard danger and resist attack, the rude inhabitants of Britain opposed the landing of Cæsar with great courage; and though defeat was generally the issue of such battles as they engaged in from time to time with the disciplined Romans, yet the country could not properly be called a Roman province before the time of Agricola, who was sent here by the Emperor Vespasian, and who succeeded in subduing the southern division of the island, about one hundred and thirty years after the first invasion of Cæsar, and eighty-four years after the birth of Jesus Christ.

During the latter part of that period, Caractacus and Boadicea are recorded as persons who gave proof of the manliness and energy of the British character. Caractacus, king of the Silures¹, after a noble resistance to the Romans, was taken prisoner in battle, A.D. 50. Being sent to Rome, and observing the splendour of that city, he exclaimed, "How could a people possessed of such magnificence at home envy me a humble cottage in Britain?" When brought in chains before Claudius, he disdained to yield to the abject despair which was usual in captives; and the emperor was so struck by the manly demeanour of the British king, that he at once restored him to liberty.

Boadicea, queen of the Iceni², had received the deepest outrage at the hands of the Roman governor. By an impassioned statement of her wrongs, she succeeded in kindling in her people the indignation against their tyrants which burnt in her own bosom; and leading them forth to battle, she defeated the Romans with great slaughter in Essex. She was, however, afterwards conquered by

¹ The Silures inhabited Radnorshire, Glamorganshire, and the adjoining counties.

² The Iceni, Norfolk, Suffolk, &c.

Suetonius Paulinus in the reign of the Emperor Nero, A.D. 61, and put an end to her life by poison.

From the time of Agricola, who penetrated even to the highlands of Scotland, (then called by the Romans Caledonia,) the country was governed by that people for about three hundred and sixty years, and the Britons acquired the arts and habits of civilized life. London (Londinium) is said to have been already a city of some beauty and extent. The province of Britain was visited by several Roman emperors, and more than one of its prefects assumed the titles of Cæsar and Augustus. Hadrian came hither to repel the Caledonians, who had made inroads into the more fertile country of the south; and under his order the line of garrisons which Agricola had established (A.D. 79) between the river Tyne (Tina Fl.) and the Solway Firth (Itūna Æst.) was completed into a continuous wall, and called *Vallum Hadriāni*. Agricola had constructed another line of garrisons, in A.D. 81, which was made into a continuous fortification in the reign of Antoninus Pius, A.D. 140, under the name of *Vallum Antonīni*. It extended from the Firth of Forth (Boderia Æst.) to the Firth of Clyde (Clota Æst.). The Vallum Severinum, which was only a few yards distant from that of Hadrian, was built, A.D. 210, by Septimius Sevērus. That emperor had come to Britain with his sons Caracalla and Geta to strengthen his frontier, and soon after the completion of his great work, died at Eborācum (York). Constantius, the father of Constantine the Great, breathed his last in the same city. His illustrious son, the first Christian emperor, was born in this island. It is generally believed that Helēna, the mother of Constantine, was a British lady.

These and the following facts are sufficient to show the importance and civilization of Britain under its Roman rulers.

At the time their sway over the island terminated, Britannia (that is, England and part of Scotland,) comprised five Provincial Divisions, which had gradually assumed that form. These were:

1. *Britannia Prima*, or that part of England which is south of Gloucestershire and the river Thames (Tamēsis Fl.).
2. *Flavia Cesariensis*, which included the country between the German Ocean on the east, and the Severn (Sabrina Æst.) and Dee (Deva Fl.) rivers on the west,

between the Thames and Avon rivers on the south; and Yorkshire and Lancashire on the north.

3. *Britannia Secunda*, which included Wales, and that part of England which is west of the rivers Severn and Dee.
4. *Maxima Caesariensis*, which was bounded on the north by the Vallum Hadriani, and on the south by the southern limits of Yorkshire and Lancashire, and included the Isle of Man (*Mona Cæsaris*).
5. *Valentia*, or that part of England and Scotland which lay between the Vallum Hadriani and the Vallum Antonini.

The reader must be referred to the map of Ancient Britain for the names of the native tribes inhabiting these divisions respectively, and for the sites of the principal British and Roman settlements. Under the protection of the Romans, the country had been intersected with artificial roads (*viæ stratae*)³, traversing it in every direction :

³ Various accounts of these roads have been given, but we may collect that the chief of them were :—

1. *Watling Street* (*Via Vitelliana*), which ran from Richborough (*Rutupiæ*), in Kent, through London to Wroxeter (*Uroconium*), and hence, probably, to Chester (*Deva*), where one branch is supposed to have turned off towards the Isle of Anglesea (*Mona Taciti*). From Chester it proceeded through York to Catterick Bridge (*Cataractonium*), and soon afterwards divided into two branches ; one through Binchester (*Vinovia*) and Riechester (*Bremenium*), to the Firth of Forth, in the direction of Edinburgh ; the other, through Carlisle (*Luguwallium*), to the Firth of Clyde, in the direction of Glasgow.

2. *Ermin Street* (*Via Herminia*), perhaps from Pevenssey (*Andemida*), in Sussex, to London ; but certainly from London, through Godmanchester (*Duroilipons*) and Lincoln (*Lindum*), to a point on the river Humber (*Abus Fl.*).

3. The *Foss Way* (*Via Fossarum*), perhaps from Seaton (*Muridunum*) on the sea-coast of Devonshire, through Ilchester (*Ischalis*), to Bath (*Aquæ Solis*) ; but certainly from Bath, through Cirencester (*Durocornovium*), crossing Watling Street at High Cross (*Venonæ*), and so through Leicester (*Ratae*), to Lincoln.

4. *Ikeneld Street* (*Via Icenorum*), from Venta Icenorum, or Caister, near Norwich, along the base of the Chiltern Hills, probably crossing the Thames at Wallingford (which was a Roman *Statio*) ; from hence (as the name of Ickling Dyke still exists in Dorsetshire) it is supposed to have gone on, through Old Sarum (*Sorbiodunum*), to Dorechester (*Durnovaria*).

5. *Ryckniel Way*, from the neighbourhood of Cirencester, through Warwickshire and Derbyshire. Its name is lost at Little Chester (*Derbentio*), but it probably went on to York.

and ninety-two considerable towns had risen up; among these latter, thirty-three cities⁴ (*civitates*) were distinguished above the rest by their superior privileges and importance.

Each of these cities had its legal constitution, as in the other provinces of the empire. And it is interesting to discover that Christian bishops, who numbered between thirty and forty, and a due proportion of priests and deacons, had a recognized position in the country long before the political connexion was broken off between Rome and Britain. The Gospel was certainly preached here as early as the apostolic age; and possibly (as many have believed) by St. Paul himself. Among its converts, were Roman rulers, and native princes: and the martyrdom of St. Alban, who suffered at Verulamium (which has since been called, after him, St. Alban's), in the persecution under Diocletian (A.D. 303), shows that this country was honoured, even at that early period, by being called to suffer for the truth. British bishops were present at the council of Arles (Arelâte), in France (A.D. 314), and probably at the celebrated council of Nicæa (also in the days of Constantine), where the greater part of the Nicene Creed was fixed by the assembled Fathers (A.D. 325). We should bless God that Christianity was so soon introduced, and a branch of the Catholic Church so firmly planted in this island.

CHAPTER II.

DEPARTURE OF THE ROMANS. ARRIVAL AND SETTLEMENT OF THE SAXONS.

From A.D. 409 to A.D. 827.

It was observed that the extent of the Roman empire was favourable to the first spreading of the Christian faith. The days, however, of that empire (which is generally thought the fourth empire spoken of by the prophet Daniel) were

⁴ Thirty of these *civitates* were situate in England and Wales, the remaining three in Scotland. Two of the whole number, Verulamium and Eboracum, were called *municipia*. Londinium, Rutupia, Lindum, and six others, *coloniae*. Cataractonium, Luguwallium, and eight others, were *Latii jure donatae*; and the remainder were called *stipendiariae*.

numbered; and throughout the fourth and fifth centuries of the Christian era, it was gradually weakened and divided by the invasion of the heathen and barbarous nations of the north. The depression of the Christian religion, which was the first consequence of this event, issued in the more signal triumph of the truth. Victorious as were the invading tribes over the degenerate Romans in battle, they were themselves successively conquered by the mild and holy faith which was held by their new subjects; and which thus showed itself able to master the passions of men under the various changes to which human society is liable.

The province of Britain soon felt the effects of the weakening of the Roman empire. The Romans were forced to withdraw their legions from these shores; and as it had been their policy to train the natives in peaceful arts and habits, they left them in a defenceless condition to contend with the Picts and Scots⁵, who were continually harassing and plundering them. The Romans finally left the island in the year 409; and after suffering the evils as well of anarchy as of foreign invasion, the Britons seem to have chosen Vortigern as their king, in the hope of finding a remedy for their ills under a strong and able ruler. A people, however, that has long trusted to others for protection, cannot soon recover those manly habits which none should suffer themselves to lose. Appeal to the Romans for aid was found to be vain, and Vortigern at length invited the Anglo-Saxons from the coast of Jutland and Holstein, to assist him in repelling those enemies whom he was himself unable to drive out of his kingdom. These heathen foreigners came over in great numbers under the brothers Hengist and Horsa, with whom Vortigern tried to confirm his league by marrying their sister Rowena. They were first settled in the Isle of Thanet, and soon succeeded in driving back the Picts and Scots to their own fastnesses; but by degrees became more fatal enemies to the British than those whom they were summoned to repel. A pretext for quarrelling with Vortigern was soon found; or (as some say) a plot was contrived for massacring him and the principal British nobles. The result of his unwise invitation

⁵ The Picts seem to have been the Caledonians of the older period under a new name. The Scoti were a horde which had passed over from Hibernia (Ireland).

was, that the Britons were gradually driven into Wales, Cornwall, and Armorica in Gaul, called afterwards, from this circumstance, Bretagne or Brittany; and that the Saxons, in a period of about one hundred and fifty years, established seven kingdoms in this island, which began to be called England, after the Angles, who had then settled themselves in it. This condition of England is known as the Saxon Heptarchy, from two Greek words which signify seven governments; and the kingdoms thus established were: 1st, Kent, comprehending Kent and Middlesex; 2nd, the South Saxons, which included Sussex, Surrey, and the New Forest; 3rd, Wessex, comprising Hants, Dorset, Wilts, and the Isle of Wight; 4th, the East Angles, comprehending Cambridge, Norfolk, and Suffolk; 5th, Essex, which included parts of Herts; 6th, Mercia, embracing the midland counties; and 7th, Northumberland, the most extensive of all, in which all the northern counties were comprised.

The civil history of England at this time consists only of the wars of these petty kings, of whom some one had often a sort of supremacy over the others, till the year A.D. 827, when Egbert, king of Wessex, after subduing the others, made himself sole master of England.

We may easily believe that the expulsion of the British by a heathen and barbarous people, proved in the first instance a serious hindrance to the Christianity as well as the civilization of the island. The British Church had recently recovered from the effects of a heresy called Pelagianism, (from its author, Pelagius or Morgan, who was a native of Wales,) through the ministry of St. Germain and St. Lupus, who held a disputation at Verulamium, A.D. 429, by which it was successfully put down. Schools had been established at Bangor and elsewhere; and missions had been sent to spread the Gospel among neighbouring nations. The Saxon invasions put an end for a time to these holy undertakings. The British bishops with their flocks found refuge chiefly in Wales, where the bishoprics founded by St. Asaph and St. David at places still called after them, attest the piety which yet found a home among the ancient Britons, when England was again given up to the darkness of heathenism.

A state of things thus unhappy, when the Church in England was so depressed that only a few of its bishops

and clergy remained, could not but move the zeal of the Church abroad; and the compassion of Gregory I., then bishop of Rome, was quickened by the sight of some English children exposed for sale in that city. He sent a mission into England, at the head of which was Augustine, the celebrated monk, who afterwards became the first archbishop of Canterbury. He landed in Kent, A.D. 596, and succeeded in converting Ethelbert, the king, already favourably disposed towards Christianity by Bertha⁶ his queen, who was a Christian princess.

The success of the mission of St. Augustine reflects honour upon Gregory, at whose desire it was undertaken. Unhappily, however, that bishop and his successors took occasion, from the circumstance of Rome having been instrumental in reconverting England to the Faith, to invent a claim of supremacy for the Church of Rome over that of England, which had been unknown till then. The archbishop of Canterbury, it was urged, held his see as a bishop suffragan, or dependent, on the see of Rome, and could not exercise his functions until he had received a pall⁷ (for which he was sometimes obliged to pay a large sum of money) from the pope⁸. This claim was frequently resisted, more or less successfully, on political and ecclesiastical grounds, by the English Church, and, as we shall see in the course of our history, gave occasion to sad heart-burnings and jealousies; but it was finally rejected at the Reformation.

But to return: within about one hundred years from A.D. 596, the Christian faith had spread itself through all the kingdoms of the Heptarchy⁹; and God raised up many

⁶ Lithardus, a bishop who had accompanied Queen Bertha from Gaul, had paved the way for St. Augustine's exertions. So that, strictly speaking, the latter was not *the* reconverter even of the south of England.

⁷ The pall was perhaps originally a robe, but afterwards it was a small piece of woollen cloth, put on the archbishop's shoulders when he officiated, which lay over the rest of his habit. Its rudeness and the nature of the material were to be emblems of humility, and of the pastoral office.

⁸ The bishop of Rome is generally called the Pope, although this title (which means *Father*) originally belonged to all bishops.

⁹ Contemporary, or nearly so, with the mission of St. Augustine to the south of England, was that of Paulinus, who was consecrated archbishop of York, to the north. But a relapse into paganism took place shortly after, and Paulinus himself was expelled, A.D. 633.

eminent men for that great ministry. The names of St. Chad¹, bishop of Lichfield; St. Theodore², archbishop of Canterbury, with others, are worthy of being ever honoured by Englishmen. Under the Divine blessing granted to the labours of these and other men of God, the rude Saxons submitted themselves to the yoke of Christ. Churches were built, and tithes and other endowments set apart for the maintenance of religion throughout the island; and the foundations were thus laid of that system of the pastoral ministry in parishes, which is to our own day the source of such unspeakable comfort and benefit.

CHAPTER III.

INVASION OF DANES. REIGN OF ALFRED.

From A.D. 827 to A.D. 900.

THE period of the Heptarchy was more favourable to learning and religion than perhaps is commonly supposed. The Venerable Bede, who died A.D. 735, and was the author of a history of the English Church, with other valuable works, and the learned Alcuin, who was born and educated in England, though he resided chiefly at the court of the Emperor Charlemagne, were probably more distinguished scholars than were to be found at that time in other parts of Europe. It pleased God, however, to suffer the country to be afflicted for about two hundred years after Egbert became king of England, by invasions of the Danes, who were still heathens, and who, wherever they made their inroads, not only laid waste the country but burnt the churches and monasteries, and put the clergy to death.

The north was destined to receive reconversion rather from Scotland than from Rome. The instrument employed by the Scots in this charitable work was St. Aidan, a monk of Icolmkill or Iona. He was consecrated bishop for the north; and removed his see from York to Lindisfarne, an island on the northern extremity of Northumbria. Here a monastery was founded on the model of that of Iona, which became the nurse of religion and learning in early times.

¹ St. Chad received his education at Lindisfarne, under St. Aidan.

² Before the time of St. Theodore, the authority of the archbishop of Canterbury had not been acknowledged beyond the kingdom of Kent.

These invaders were but feebly resisted by Ethelwulf, who succeeded his father Egbert on the throne, A.D. 837, and was a prince of an indolent and superstitious character. He is chiefly remarkable for a visit which he paid to Rome, whither he had sent his son Alfred to be confirmed by Pope Leo IV., and where Ethelwulf resided a year, when his kingdom could ill spare his presence. During his time, and through the reigns of his three elder sons, Ethelbald, A.D. 858, Ethelbert, A.D. 860, and Ethelred I., A.D. 866, who reigned successively, the Danes gained many victories, attended by great cruelty and rapine, and began to aim at making a permanent settlement in the fertile fields of England. When Alfred, the fourth son of Ethelwulf, became king, A.D. 871, nothing could be more wretched than the state of the country. For a time, indeed, he made head against the Danes; but they arrived in such swarms, that he found it necessary to withdraw from the struggle, and even to conceal himself in the cottage of a herdsman, whose humble labours he shared. While thus awaiting better times, he is said to have been chid one day by the herdsman's wife for having failed to turn a cake that was being baked, which she had set him to watch. The woman, who little suspected the quality of her inmate, told him sharply that "he could eat a cake, though he was too lazy to turn it." She was much dismayed on discovering Alfred's rank by the arrival of some of his faithful followers, who entreated him to lead them once more against the Danes. In order to acquaint himself with the plans of his enemies, he is said to have entered their camp in the disguise of a harper. He found the camp unguarded, and the Danes given wholly to riot and feasting. He was thus enabled to attack them with advantage, and he defeated them with great slaughter: but he made a mild use of his victory, and Gothrum, the Danish chief, with many of his principal followers, were afterwards admitted to holy baptism.

From this period the reign of Alfred was one of true glory and usefulness. The Danes were bravely repulsed from time to time; and when on one occasion the wife and children of Hastings, their leader, were surprised and brought to Alfred, he generously sent them back, observing that he did not make war with women and children. This

great king applied himself to promote the happiness of his people by framing wise laws, and encouraging sound religion and all the arts of peace. His endeavour was to establish for ever by law such ancient Saxon customs as were favourable to freedom and virtue. We may mention the great safeguard for justice, that every man shall be tried by a jury of his peers or equals; and the institution of two councils, the one composed of thanes, or nobles, and bishops, the other (which was called the Witenagemot), a more general council of the nation, through which the public resolutions of the sovereign were to pass. It seems that the germ of these institutions existed in the customs of the Saxons, but they received from Alfred a more fixed and legal character. In order that the process of obtaining justice might be easy to all classes of people, he completed the division of the kingdom into counties and parishes, and distributed the powers of government among officers of various degrees, from the earl, who with the sheriff was set over the shire or county, to the tything-man, who was bound for the good behaviour of his more immediate neighbours. Murder was now made punishable by death; and several laws were passed to better the condition of the churls or villains, who were slaves attached to the soil, and whose degraded state was the chief blot in the ancient Saxon customs. The authority of the law was so respected in the days of Alfred, that when golden bracelets were hung by the public highway, by way of trial, no man touched them.

Alfred was a favourer of sound learning and religion, no less by his own example than by his laws. He gave eight hours of every day to study and the service of religion, and half his revenue to works of piety and charity. He sent a mission to carry alms to the Christians in India, (whose very existence was afterwards forgotten, till comparatively modern times,) and restored the ancient school at Oxford, which seems to have existed even from the days of St. Germain. Here he placed the learned John Scott, called Erigena, a native of Ireland, who is renowned for having opposed the corrupt doctrine that was now beginning to prevail in the Church of Rome on the subject of the Lord's Supper. It may thus be observed, that as the ancient British Church had little or no connexion with the see of Rome, so neither did the Saxon Church acknowledge its

authority to be decisive in matters either of doctrine or of discipline. Gratitude indeed was due from England to Rome for the benefits derived from the charity of Pope Gregory and the labour of Augustine, but nothing more.

The character of Alfred had been formed in the school of adversity. His reign, which was followed by a long period of suffering and darkness, has ever been regarded as the foundation of the British constitution : nor can any one tell how much it is owing (under God's blessing) to his laws and institutions, and to the memory of his glorious reign, that the love of freedom and the manly sense by which the English character has ever been distinguished survived the superstition and oppression which were beginning to darken and enslave the whole of Europe.

Alfred died in the year A.D. 901, in the 52nd year of his life.

CHAPTER IV.

FROM THE REIGN OF ALFRED TO THE REIGN OF CANUTE.

From A.D. 901 to A.D. 1016.

THE Saxon kings were for the most part wise and able princes, but the successive invasions of the Danes continually marred their efforts for the good of their people. Edward the Elder, who succeeded his father Alfred, is reckoned the founder of the University of Cambridge, as he established certain schools at that place, in imitation of those which had been restored and fostered by his father at Oxford. In the reign of Athelstan his son, who came to the throne A.D. 925, three foreign kings received instruction in England ; Alan of Bretagne, Louis of France, and Haco of Norway. Athelstan defeated the Welsh under Howel the Good, and overthrew the Danes, who were assisted by Constantine, king of Scotland, at the great battle of Brunton, in Northumberland. Athelstan was the first of the Saxon princes who took the title of King of all Britain. He is said to have taken a cruel course with his

brother Edwin, by turning him adrift in a ship without sails or oars, because he suspected him of conspiring against his crown. The unhappy prince leapt overboard in despair, and thus perished. This king was however the author of several wise laws, by which he allowed the rank of thane to any merchant who should have made three voyages on his own account, and also to any franklin or freeholder who (besides certain other qualifications) should have a church with a bell-tower on his estate. He was succeeded by his brother Edmund I. (A.D. 940), a prince of remarkable promise, though forced by the Danes to agree to a partition of his kingdom with Anlaf their leader. He was slain in his own hall by a robber, named Leolf (A.D. 947), and his children being infants, the crown was bestowed on Edred, his brother. In those days it was so necessary that the sceptre should be in the hands of a prince of mature age and vigour, that though the principle of hereditary succession to the throne was owned, yet, when the heir was an infant, the nobles claimed the privilege of choosing some member of the family, more qualified to enter at once on the duties of the royal office. Edred was very victorious against the Danes, whose share in the kingdom he reduced to a province; but in his government he yielded too blindly to the monks, especially to Dunstan, then abbot of Glastonbury, who by reputed sanctity and false miracles obtained an immense influence throughout the kingdom. The long wars by which the country had been scourged were fatal to sound learning and religion, and the minds of men were thus prepared to receive many corrupt doctrines and superstitious practices. Worshipping of images was now gaining ground. Attempts had been already made to enforce celibacy on the clergy, that is, to deny their right to marry according to their discretion. Instead of adjudging questions by rational proof, men sought to determine them by the pagan custom of ordeals (the folly of which was declared even by the Church of Rome), in which the accuser and the accused were matched in single combat, or the accused was required to bear the touch of boiling water or red-hot iron.

Edred, who died A.D. 955, was succeeded by Edwy, the son of Edmund, who did all in his power to weaken the

influence of the monks. A pathetic tale has been told of the usage which Edwy and his queen Elgiva received at the hands of Dunstan, and Odo, archbishop of Canterbury. According to this account their marriage was opposed, and their union severed by those monks, on the ground of a relationship within the prohibited degrees. It is said that Elgiva was, by Odo's orders, branded in the face and conveyed to Ireland, and on returning some time afterwards to Edwy, was waylaid and miserably murdered, while Edgar, another son of Edmund, was induced to revolt against his brother. By another account, it is said that the kingdom was divided by the nobles between Edwy and Edgar at Edred's death. The whole history therefore is very doubtful. It is certain, indeed, that Dunstan was more ambitious of worldly power, and more unscrupulous in seeking it, than became his office; but he was the author of many useful practical laws, which the Church still acknowledges; and Archbishop Odo has left writings which betoken a very different temper from that which has been ascribed to him. The more probable account is, that Elgiva was killed in a revolt of the people against Edwy: who himself died after a reign of four years, on which the authority of Edgar was acknowledged throughout the kingdom.

This king has been called Edgar the Peaceable, from the peace which England enjoyed under his reign. His power was such, that his barge was rowed on the river Dee by the king of Man and several Welsh and Scottish chieftains, while he himself sat at the helm. Edgar, who made Dunstan archbishop of Canterbury, has been greatly extolled by this monk, to whom he lent his whole influence; but he seems to have been a prince of unscrupulous character. This appears from the adventure of Elfrida, the heiress of Devonshire, of whose beauty the king heard such reports as led him to send Ethelwald, his friend, to ascertain their truth. The faithless messenger wooed her on his own account. On his return, he declared that the report of her beauty was false, but that he was himself desirous of marrying so great an heiress. The king allowed this marriage, but finding afterwards that he had been deceived by Ethelwald, is said to have caused his murder. However this may be, Edgar undoubtedly lost no time in marrying his widow, who became the mother of Ethelred II.

It was by Edgar's exertions that the wolves with which England was greatly infested were completely extirpated. He was succeeded, A.D. 975, by Edward, his son by a former wife, who is known as Edward the Martyr. Within three years from his accession, the youthful king was murdered by order of his stepmother Elfrida, at Corfe Castle, where that queen resided, and where Edward had stopped while hunting, to show respect to his father's widow. Elfrida was tempted to this crime by her desire to see the crown on the head of her own son, who now succeeded his murdered brother, A.D. 978.

His name was Ethelred, and he was called the Unready, from the feeble resistance which he made to the Danes, who were now again rising against their Saxon rulers. Ethelred was weak enough to purchase the departure of the hordes that were continually arriving; and finding that this expedient did but encourage their return, he resolved on a perfidious massacre of all the Danes in England, which was executed with circumstances of the most savage cruelty. The crime soon brought its punishment in the arrival of fresh swarms under Sweyne and Anlaf (kings of Denmark and Norway), resolved on avenging the slaughter of their countrymen by the ruin of England. Ethelred fled to Richard, the duke of Normandy, whose sister Emma he had married; and Sweyne was proclaimed king of England, A.D. 1013.

The death of Sweyne soon followed; and Ethelred returned to give fresh proof of his weakness in his feeble efforts against Canute, the son of Sweyne; but died shortly after his return, A.D. 1016. Canute then met with a more manly foe in Edmund (surnamed Ironside), the son of Ethelred, who struggled with great skill and courage to recover his inheritance, but was defeated with great loss at Essenden, in Herts, and afterwards basely murdered. This was A.D. 1016, and Canute then became master of the kingdom.

Such was the issue of those weak and perfidious measures by which Ethelred had endeavoured to maintain his power. The crimes also of Edgar and Elfrida were thus signally marked with the Divine displeasure; and we learn that neither nation nor family can eventually prosper, which builds its house on a foundation of wrong.

CHAPTER V.

FROM THE REIGN OF CANUTE TO THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

From A.D. 1016 to A.D. 1066.

CANUTE, who was king of Denmark and Norway, as well as of England, acquired the affections of his Saxon subjects by the wisdom and equity of his government; but his character is stained by the cruelty with which he treated the two sons of Edmund Ironside, whom he sent out of the kingdom, with such instructions to the Dane who was entrusted with them, as were likely to ensure their death. They were, however, received by Solomon king of Hungary, where one of them, called from his misfortunes Edward the Outlaw, married the queen's sister, by whom he became the father of Edgar Atheling, and Margaret, afterwards queen of Scotland.

There were two other princes, from whose claims Canute apprehended danger to his crown. These were Alfred and Edward, the sons of Ethelred the Unready, by Emma of Normandy his second queen. They resided in Normandy, at their uncle's court, and in order to guard himself from any attempts from that quarter, Canute prevailed on Emma to marry him, by settling the succession to the crown on such issue as they might have.

After thus establishing his power, Canute had a prosperous reign of nearly twenty years, and earned the title of "the Great," no less by the wisdom and justice of his government, than by his victories over his enemies. His laws are indeed almost the first that make mention of the pope, as having any recognized authority over the English clergy, but are in general marked by a spirit of mildness and piety, and by respect for the freedom and ancient customs of the Saxons. He is said to have shown his wisdom by the reply which he made to the flattery of his courtiers, who one day, when he was walking by the seashore, compared his power to God's. The tide was coming in, and Canute ordered a chair to be brought, on which he sat upon the beach, and commanded the waves to retire. When his chair was quite surrounded by the waters, he

rebuked his followers, desiring them to observe that no power can be likened to his, Who alone can say to the sea, "Thus far shalt thou go, and no farther."

Canute died A.D. 1036, leaving three sons, Sweyne, king of Norway; Hardicanute (his son by Emma), already settled on the throne of Denmark; and Harold, surnamed Harefoot, who succeeded to the English crown, notwithstanding the superior claims and efforts of his half-brother, Hardicanute. His reign of four years is disgraced by the murder of Alfred, his mother's son by Ethelred, who came to England with his brother Edward to visit that queen, now again a widow. By the help of Earl Godwin, a powerful nobleman, who gave much trouble in the following reigns, Alfred was arrested in the castle of Guildford, by virtue of Harold's order, and died from the cruel treatment he received. On the death of Harold, A.D. 1039, Hardicanute became king, and was chiefly remarkable for his brutal intemperance. He died after a reign of two years, A.D. 1041, and the line of Saxon monarchs was restored in the person of Edward the son of Ethelred, who had escaped from the treachery of Earl Godwin, and now secured the interest of that nobleman by marrying his daughter Egitha. This princess was a lady of much piety and learning. Ingulphus, a Saxon historian, who was a scholar in the monastery at Westminster, tells us that the queen used often to meet him and his schoolfellows in her walks. On these occasions she would try to pose the scholars with some grave or playful question of grammar or logic. She would then direct her maid to give the youths a piece or two of silver, and send them for some refreshment to the palace buttery.

Edward acquired the titles of Saint and Confessor by the zeal with which he lent himself to the designs of the monks. Having been educated in Normandy, he was too much biassed in favour of foreign churchmen, whom he placed in English sees. He also made several monasteries (in Sussex and elsewhere) subject to abbeys in Normandy. The reign of this king was chiefly disturbed by the ambition of Earl Godwin, whose son, Harold, who was connected with the line of the Danish kings, began to take steps for securing the succession to the crown, as he saw that Edward was childless, and Edgar Atheling, the rightful heir, a prince of feeble character.

It was in this reign that Siward, earl of Northumberland, was sent to assist Malcolm Canmore, king of Scotland, against Macbeth, who had murdered his father, Duncan, and usurped the throne. The history of Macbeth has furnished the plot to one of the noblest dramas of William Shakspeare.

King Edward was the founder of Westminster Abbey, where all the English kings have since been crowned. He died A.D. 1066, just after the consecration of that monastery; and Harold prevailed on the nobles to elect him as their sovereign, without regarding the right of Edgar Atheling, or the pretensions of William, duke of Normandy, whose claims were founded on a pretended will of Edward the Confessor, and had been allowed by Harold himself when on a visit some years before at William's court.

Harold, on his accession, did all in his power to engage the affections of his people, and induce them to support him in the struggle with William, which now awaited him. He was first called to repel the invasion of Harfager, king of Norway, who was supported by Toston, a brother of Harold; and he gained a great victory over them at Battlebridge, in Yorkshire. In this battle both Harfager and Toston fell; and Harold hastened to the south to oppose Duke William, who had already landed in Sussex. The armies met near Hastings, and the battle which ensued was long doubtful, till Harold was slain by an arrow, and his followers, discouraged by that event, were routed with great slaughter.

The death of Harold put an end to the dominion of the Anglo-Saxons in England; but the manly spirit of the Saxon institutions had taken such hold of the people, that, though curbed by the tyranny of Norman rule, it could not in the end be put down. Much of our English greatness is owing, under God, to the fact that the Saxons, however much depressed in the next reigns, formed a middle class between the Norman nobles and the mere peasantry; of greater weight and of a more manly and independent character than was to be found in other parts of Europe. England was thus still possessed of the materials of national greatness, in having a people proud of the glory of their forefathers, and attached to those ancient laws which were well suited to train them in simple and manly habits.

SAXON KINGS.

EGBERT, 827.

ETHELWULF, 837.

ETHELBALD, 858. ETHELBERT, 860. ETHELRED I. 866. ALFRED, 872.

EDWARD I. (the Elder), 901.

ATHELSTAN, 925. Edwin. EDMUND I. the Elder, 940. EDRED, 947.

EDWY, 955; married Elgiva. EDGAR the Peaceable, 959; married Elfrida of Devonshire, who became mother of Ethelred.
Edgar's son by 1st wife.

EDWARD II. the Martyr, 975. ETHELRED II. the Unready, 978.

EDMUND Iron-side, 1016; killed same year. EDWARD III. Confessor, 1041; died 1066. Alfred, murdered by Harold I.

Edward the Outlaw.

Edgar Atheling. Margaret, married Malcolm, King of Scotland.

Matilda, married Henry I. of England.

Matilda or Maud, by her second husband, Geoffry of Anjou, had

HENRY II., King of England, 1154.

DANISH KINGS.

SWEYNE, 1013.

CANUTE, 1014; married Emma: widow of Ethelred II., by whom he had

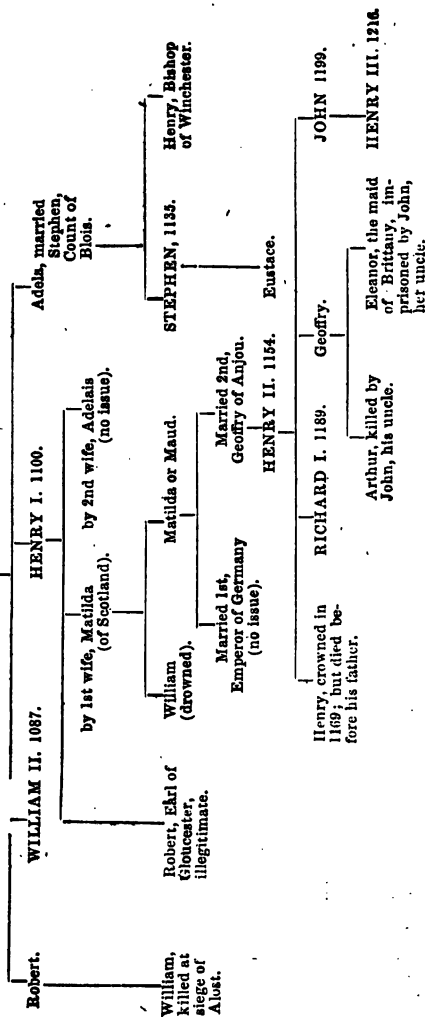
By former wife.

Gita, married Earl Godwin. HAROLD I. HARDICANUTE, 1036. 1039; died 1041.

HAROLD II.

NORMAN KINGS.

WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR, 1066.



CHAPTER VI.

WILLIAM (THE CONQUEROR).

From A.D. 1066 to A.D. 1087. Born at Falaise. Buried at Caen. Reigned 21 years.

Archbishops of Canterbury.

Stigand, A.D. 1054—1070. | Lanfranc, A.D. 1070—1089.

IN choosing Harold as their king, and overlooking the rightful claims of Edgar Atheling, the English nobles had broken that rule of hereditary succession, for the arbitrary violation of which no personal qualities in the sovereign can make up. When Harold, therefore, was slain, they had no great principle of loyalty to bind them together; and though an attempt was made to proclaim Edgar, it was then too late to rally men round that sacredness of ancient right, which had been so blindly set aside. This may greatly account for the fact that one victory gave William possession of the English crown. It should also be said that he was naturally much favoured by all the Norman churchmen who had been brought over by Edward the Confessor, and the more so, inasmuch as his enterprise had been (as men then imagined) blessed and hallowed by the pope. On his approach to London he was met by many nobles, including Edgar himself, and Stigand, archbishop of Canterbury, who at once tendered their submission, and he was soon solemnly crowned at Westminster.

It seems to have been William's purpose at first to govern the nation which he had conquered with strict justice. The English, however, soon found that all real power was in the hands of Normans: and as they were unable to brook the insults and oppression with which they were continually galled, the history of William's reign is chiefly a record of repeated revolts, which he punished with the most unrelenting cruelty, laying waste on one occasion the entire country for a distance of sixty miles between the Humber and the Tees. These revolts seem to have steeled his heart against his English subjects. He seized every pretence for confiscating their estates, which he bestowed

on his Norman followers; he built castles on commanding points at all the principal cities, and removed most of the Saxon prelates. Among others he deposed Stigand, and appointed Lanfranc to that see, a prelate of great learning and piety. The expulsion of Wolfstan, afterwards canonized^a as a saint, from the see of Worcester, seems to have been prevented by a most affecting speech from that aged bishop, when required to give up his crosier. One badge of servitude which was felt greatly by the English, was a law directing that all fires should be put out at the tolling of a bell at eight o'clock. This bell, which is still rung at ancient places, is called the curfew, from two words which signify that fires should be covered or put out. It was William's purpose to abolish the very language of the Saxons, and he therefore desired that all laws should be written, and all pleadings conducted in Norman-French; and of these vain attempt to destroy our noble language, some traces still exist in the ancient forms of our public courts. To subdue, however, the spirit of the Saxons, the Conqueror relied mainly on the complete establishment in England of a system called the feudal law^b, at that time prevailing in most parts of Europe. By this system the whole kingdom was parcelled out into so many chief baronies, which were held of the crown on condition of military service, and these were in like manner divided into knights' fees, which were held of the superior barons on the same tenure of service or vassalage. The vassal did homage to his lord for the lands which he held, and was bound to serve him in war, and contribute to his ransom if taken prisoner. This system was not fruitless of generous protection on the one side, and honourable

^a "To canonize a person." This phrase is derived from the fact that after a person's excellences were found to be such as to entitle him to be called a saint, his name was put into the *canon* or rule for observing festivals.

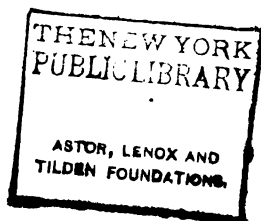
^b The word *feud*, derived from a barbarous Latin word, *feudum*, or the classical word *fœdus*, a covenant, meant an allotment of land under condition of serving a superior lord in war. *Feudal tenure* of land is holding land under such condition. The *feudal law*, or *system*, is state of things thus brought about; e. g. when Wales was conquered by England, its princes were no longer independent, but feudal holders of their territory under the English king.

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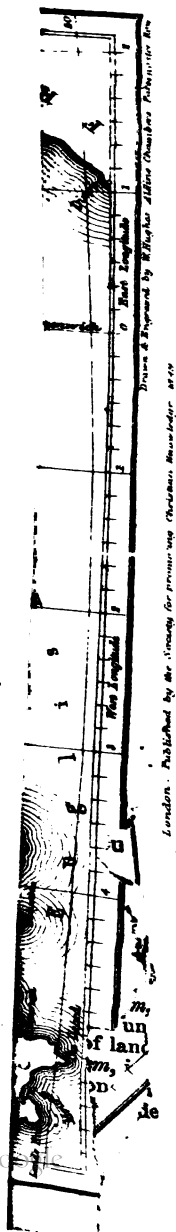
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loyalty on the other; but it was capable of being dreadfully abused, from the power which the lord possessed, especially when his vassal was under age. He had then the custody of the minor's lands and person, and had the power even of disposing of his vassal in marriage.

This reign was unfavourable to the independence of the English Church, William indeed was himself little inclined to part with any of his power to pope Gregory VII. (or Hildebrand), who was then putting forward the most extravagant claims of supremacy; and his answer to the Pope's demand that he would take an oath of fealty to him and his successors was, "Homage to thee I have not chosen—I do not choose—to do. I owe it not on my own account; nor do I find that it has been performed by those before me." But with all this, having invaded England under the pretended sanction of a papal grant, and relying so much as he did on the clergy for support, he doubtless in the main increased the influence of Rome; and the Norman bishops whom he brought in were considerably more infected with Romish errors than the Saxon clergy.

One point William certainly conceded to Rome on Gregory's importunity—the continuance of the payment called Peter-pence. But this was in its origin a voluntary payment or offering made by Ina, king of Wessex, being in pilgrimage to Rome, in the year of our Lord, 720; it was a penny for every house. The like was given by Offa, king of Mercia, A.D. 794; not as a tribute to the Pope, but to sustain the English school or college at Rome; and it derived its name from being collected on the day of St. Peter ad Vincula. From these local payments for a particular object and from private feelings, the payment had become general. William could probably scarce trace its origin, and acquiesced in it. The practice was first prohibited by Edward III., and abrogated by Henry VIII. After being revived by Queen Mary, it was at length wholly abrogated by Queen Elizabeth.

Church architecture began to be more studied in William's reign than it had been before. Either to his encouragement, or to the piety of individuals, we owe the commencement of the crypt or under-church of Canterbury cathedral; part of St. Alban's abbey, and of the cathedrals of Winchester and Rochester, are attributable to his era.

Among the learned men of William's court were Ingulphus, abbot of Croyland, his secretary, who wrote a history of that monastery, interspersed with records of the English kings; and William of Poitiers, his chaplain, who has left an account of the Norman revolution.

There is a work of the Conqueror, which has lasted to our times, and is a proof of his wisdom and ability. This is a book called Domesday Book; in which is contained an account of all the landed property throughout a great part of the kingdom, given after an accurate survey.

The latter years of his life were embittered by the quarrels and undutiful behaviour of his sons, and also by the death of his queen, Matilda, a lady of remarkable piety and sweetness of character. His younger sons, William and Henry, on one occasion, threw some dirty water over Robert, their eldest brother, who drew his sword, and would have struck his brothers in his fury. Not obtaining the satisfaction he expected for this boyish folly, which he took as a studied affront, he withdrew from the court, and afterwards revolted against his father, demanding to be at once invested with the duchies of Normandy and Maine. The Conqueror replied to this demand, that it was not his custom to strip till he went to bed. In one of the encounters in this unnatural contest, it is said that the father and son, unknown to each other, were engaged in deadly combat; and Robert was on the point of dispatching his own father, when William raised his vizor, and Robert was surprised and shocked to see his father's face. He thanked God for saving him from so great a crime; and begging his father to forgive him, he mounted him on his own horse, as the king's had been killed in the fight. The king died in Normandy, from a hurt received from the pommel of his saddle, and was buried at Caen, between the towers of the noble cathedral which he had founded. His funeral was disturbed by one who declared that that very spot had been unrighteously taken from his father, and summoned the departed king before the tribunal of God to answer for that act of oppression. How many a similar appeal might have been made by his English subjects! His mere passion for the chase had been indulged to such excess, that he had turned out the miserable peasants from a wide tract of country in Hants, still called the New Forest, in order to

convert it into a royal domain; and by his laws, a man who killed a stag or a hare was punished with the most relentless cruelty. By his will his Norman dominions were left to Robert; and William, (called Rufus or the Red, from the colour of his hair,) his second son, ascended the throne of England, A.D. 1087.

CHAPTER VII.

WILLIAM (RUFUS).

*Born in Normandy. Buried in Winchester Cathedral.
Reigned from A.D. 1087 to A.D. 1100, thirteen years.*

Archbishops of Canterbury.

Lanfranc, A.D. 1070—1089.
(Vacancy five years.)

Anselm, A.D. 1093—1107.

THE accession of William Rufus was unwelcome to the Norman barons. They would rather have had Robert for their king, who was a prince of an indolent and easy character, and at the same time brave, generous, and sincere; whereas William was known to be as keen and shrewd as he was violent, grasping, and unbridled by any fear of God, or feeling for man. He had the cunning to court his Saxon subjects, in order to win their aid in quelling the revolt which was raised by the nobles in favour of his brother; and when he had gained his point, he forgot his promises, and oppressed the English with a lawlessness more unbearable than his father's rigour. After the death of Lanfranc, who alone held him in any check, he seized the revenues of his see, and kept them for five years, together with those of many other abbeys and bishoprics; nor was it till his conscience was alarmed by a dangerous illness that he appointed Anselm to the primacy, who had been closely connected with Lanfranc, and who accepted the office most unwillingly. When William was recovered of his illness, he continued to set God and man at defiance, and met the remonstrances of Anselm with such fury, that that prelate (who has gained the title of saint from his holiness and zeal in withstanding the unrighteous

claims of earthly rulers) was forced to withdraw himself from England.

Not satisfied with his English dominions, William endeavoured to wrest even Normandy from his elder brother. He succeeded in gaining possession of it as a security for a sum of money advanced to that prince, who shared the zeal which was then kindled from one end of Europe to the other, for the recovery of Jerusalem from the Turks, who had succeeded the Saracens in the possession of Judea. The former people had no objection to pilgrims visiting the Holy Sepulchre, provided they paid a moderate tribute; but the Turks conquered Jerusalem in A.D. 1065, and after that time the pilgrims were treated with the greatest cruelty. From this circumstance the most intense desire was felt throughout Christendom, for a period of about one hundred and fifty years, to expel the infidels from that sacred land. Vast armies were led to Palestine by the greatest kings, and no act of devotion was thought so meritorious as to enlist in these expeditions, which were called Crusades, from the cross adopted as a badge by all the soldier-pilgrims. It was the first and most successful of these expeditions, which commenced in A.D. 1096, at the instigation of Peter the Hermit, that Robert was now desirous of joining; nor did any prince make such sacrifices for the sake of what was thought due to the memory of our blessed Saviour. Not only did he mortgage his dukedom for the sum that was wanted to enable him to set forth, but being absent in Italy at the time of William's death, he lost the season (which was seized by his brother Henry) for asserting his claims to the English crown.

William was shot unintentionally by Sir Walter Tyrrel (A.D. 1100), while hunting in the New Forest; and when men recollected the means by which that district became a royal chase, they were not backward to ascribe this event to the righteous judgment of God.

It may be remarked that Westminster Hall was built by William Rufus, though very few portions of his original work are now remaining. Many parish churches, and parts of some of our cathedrals, were constructed during his reign; as, for instance, of Worcester, Durham, and Norwich. But we cannot think that the Church was much indebted in this respect, or in any other, to King William. His sacrilegious

appropriation of the revenues of the see of Canterbury, and ill-treatment of Anselm, have been already noticed. Generally speaking, the state of the Church in his reign was very low. Bishoprics and livings were to be bought for money¹. The bishops were frequently men of scanty education and warlike habits. The feudal system had made their bishoprics baronies, and liable to furnish soldiers for the king's service; and they not unfrequently themselves forgot their calling, and fell in with the spirit of the times.

CHAPTER VIII.

HENRY I. (BEAU-CLERC.)

*Born at Selby in Yorkshire. Buried in the Abbey at Reading.
Reigned 35 years. From A.D. 1100 to A.D. 1135.*

Archbishops of Canterbury.

Anselm, A.D. 1093—1107.

(Vacancy five years.)

Ralph, A.D. 1112—1122.

William of Corboil, A.D. 1122—1136

WHEN William was thus slain, his brother Henry (surnamed Beau-clerc, on account of his scholarship) was hunting with him, and rode at once to Winchester, where he seized the royal treasure. He then hastened to London, and was, indeed, crowned at Westminster within sixty-six hours of William's death. Feeling himself in need of every support to the throne which he had usurped, he began by reforming abuses; and gave charters to his people, by which he engaged to abstain from the oppressive acts of power, from which they had suffered in the times of his brother and father. He also married Matilda, daughter of Malcolm, king of Scotland, by Margaret, sister to Edgar Atheling; and by these popular measures prepared himself to meet his brother Robert, who, on his return, took possession of Normandy, and soon landed at Portsmouth to make good his claims on England. Through the mediation, however, of St. Anselm, (who had now returned from Rome,) he was induced to give up his claims to Henry,

¹ This is called *Simony*, from the sin of Simon Magus, "who thought that the gift of God might be purchased for money." Acts viii. 20.

retaining his Norman dukedom, and on condition that if either prince should die without issue, the survivor should succeed to his dominions.

The fate of Robert is the greatest stain on Henry's memory. Easily finding a pretext for invading Normandy, Henry gained (after sundry transactions) a great battle at Tenchebrai, in which Robert was taken prisoner, with many other nobles, A.D. 1117. Being brought to England, he was confined for the remainder of his life, which lasted twenty-eight years, in Cardiff castle; a warning that many noble qualities will not make up for that indolence which was his ruin, and which he carried to such excess, that he lay in bed whole days for want of clothes, of which he suffered his servants to plunder him.

Henry thus became master of Normandy; but the revolts in favour of William, the son of Robert, (a gallant prince, who at length was slain before Alost, in the Netherlands,) gave him unceasing trouble; and in crossing on one occasion from Normandy, he was overtaken by a storm, in which William, his only legitimate son, was lost. The crew of the ship in which Prince William had embarked were drunken and riotous, and steered the vessel on a rock. The prince and some others got into a little boat; but, hearing the cries of his sister, who was left in the wreck, he gave orders to return, that he might take her in. So many got into the boat with her, that it sunk under the weight, and all on board perished. One man, who clung to the mast of the ship, was saved by some fishermen the next day. The captain had clung to the mast in the same way; but when he found that the prince was drowned, he let go his hold, and so shared the fate of his young master. This affliction must have made Henry feel some of that anguish which he had caused to his brother, but we do not hear that the severity with which that prince was treated was at all mitigated. The king now took every means to secure the succession for his daughter Matilda, generally termed the Empress Maud, who had been married to the Emperor Henry V., and after his death to Geoffrey, count of Anjou, called Plantagenet from the sprig of broom (genista) which he wore. As this princess was descended by her mother from the Saxon kings, the prospect of her succession was welcome to the English.

At this time, a contest was going on between the popes and the kings of Europe, involving the right to appoint bishops to their sacred offices. The mode of appointing a prelate was this. After being elected by the canons of his cathedral, he was invested, though this ceremony is by no means an essential to his appointment, with a ring and crosier, and did homage to the king, who thus had virtually the power of appointment, since he could refuse the investiture as well as the homage. The power of appointing to a spiritual office was declared by the Pope to be such as no layman ought to possess. The spiritual part of the episcopal character, *i. e.* the power to ordain priests and deacons, to consecrate Bishops, to confirm, and perform other functions connected with the souls of men (it was truly said), could be derived only by succession from the Apostles themselves. It was also held in that day, that, besides "the laying on of hands," the investiture was an essential to such an appointment, and as such could not be received from a layman. This great question was settled more happily in England than elsewhere, though not without the exercise of great firmness on the part of St. Anselm. It was agreed that the bishop should do homage for his temporal possessions, as for a barony; but the king resigned his claim to invest him with the ring and crosier; to "laying on of hands" he had never pretended.

Henry passed the latter part of his life much in Normandy, especially after the birth of his daughter's children. He died in that country of an illness occasioned by eating lampreys, A.D. 1135.

Under Henry's government the state of England was unusually tranquil, and great exertions were made by Anselm and his friend Eadmer, abbot of Glastonbury, an analyst of the period, for the revival of learning. William of Malmesbury also, and the authors of a work called "The Saxon Chronicle," are specimens of the literature of this and the succeeding reign. Church building continued to make progress, as is attested by the fact that a great part of Peterborough Cathedral, then only an abbey church, and part of Norwich Cathedral, are attributable to this date;—stained glass for the decoration of windows is said to have been now introduced.

CHAPTER IX.

STEPHEN.

Born at Blois. Buried at Feversham, in Kent. Reigned 19 years. From A.D. 1135 to A.D. 1154.

Archbishops of Canterbury.

William of Corboil, A.D. 1122—1136. | Theobald, A.D. 1138—1161.
(Vacancy two years.)

THE sceptre which Henry had gained with so much crime, was wrested from his daughter by Stephen, a grandson of the Conqueror by Adela, who married Stephen, count of Blois. Having prevailed on William of Corboil, archbishop of Canterbury, to crown him, (contrary to the allegiance which they had both sworn to Maud,) he tried to strengthen his usurped authority by various concessions, of which none took real effect but the dangerous permission to his nobles to build castles at their will. Twelve hundred are said to have been built during this reign. His reign was little but a continued war with the empress, whose cause was most ably maintained by her natural brother Robert, earl of Gloucester, and also by David I., her uncle, the king of Scots. The invasion of that prince, however, roused the spirit of the northern nobles, especially of Thurstan, archbishop of York, a prelate of great courage, as well as piety and munificence; and it was greatly through his influence that an army was raised, which defeated the Scottish king in a battle at Northallerton, in Yorkshire, called the battle of the Standard, A.D. 1138.

Maud soon landed in Sussex, and was received in Arundel Castle by Adelais, the second wife of Henry I., now married to William de Albeney, earl of Sussex. In the various chances of this war, which desolated the kingdom from one end to the other, Stephen was at one time taken prisoner in a battle at Lincoln, and treated with great indignity by Maud, who caused herself to be crowned, and prevailed even on Stephen's brother, the bishop of Winchester, to abandon him. Her haughtiness soon disgusted that prelate, and she was herself compelled to flee before

the nobles, who revolted in Stephen's favour. The earl of Gloucester having been taken in a battle near Winchester, A.D. 1141, was exchanged for Stephen; and it was now the empress's turn to be often in great danger. On one occasion she escaped her foes by being shut up in a coffin. On another, she fled by night from the Castle of Oxford, attended by four knights, in white dresses, that they might not be distinguished from the snow which was on the ground. The death of Eustace, the son of Stephen, removed one obstacle in the way of an agreement; and at length, by the mediation of Theobald, archbishop of Canterbury, a treaty was concluded, by which Stephen was to be king during his life, and the crown to devolve on Henry, the empress's son, to whom the nobles did homage as heir-apparent.

The influence of Rome was now making great strides in England. William of Corboil had given a fatal blow to our Church's independence of foreign interference, by consenting to act as the pope's legate or deputy, rather than by his own authority as the Primate, that is, the first Bishop of England. One effect of this was to make persons think that the clergy and the religious bodies only were the Church, and that it was a power to which they might look for shelter from the lawlessness of the barons, who reigned as petty princes in their castles. Such shelter they obtained—but they obtained it by a sacrifice of the true idea of the Church, of which we shall speak in the next reign. The readiness with which men of all parties forgot the sanctity of oaths, is no less a mark of this dismal period than the cruelty of the nobles. The king himself was not destitute of such qualities as engaged the affections of his followers, but by his own perjury in usurping the throne he set an example which men were too apt to copy. He died A.D. 1154; and was succeeded by prince Henry.

The Hospital of St. Cross, near Winchester, and the Monastery of Feversham, in Kent, were founded by Stephen. In this latter place he and his queen, Matilda, who was niece to the empress Maud, were buried.

CHAPTER X.

HENRY II. (PLANTAGENET.)

Born in Anjou. Buried in the Abbey of Fontevrault. Reigned 35 years. From A.D. 1154 to A.D. 1189.

Archbishops of Canterbury.

Theobald, A.D. 1139—1161.

(Vacancy more than a year.)

Thomas à Becket, A.D. 1162—1170.

(Vacancy two years.)

Richard, A.D. 1172—1184.

Baldwin, A.D. 1184—1191.

WITH the name of Plantagenet, Henry brought a vast accession of territory to the English crown. From his father he inherited Anjou; and Normandy had been given up to him by his mother. He possessed the provinces of France from the Loire to the Pyrenees, in right of Eleanor, whom he married after she was divorced from Louis VII., the king of France. In the course of his reign he acquired Bretagne, by the marriage of Geoffrey, one of his younger sons, with Constance the heiress of that duchy. It may be doubted whether these foreign provinces added to the real greatness of England. They were the source of endless wars with France, both in the time of Henry and in the reigns of his successors for many generations.

What was dearer to the English than these foreign possessions, was the knowledge that in Henry they had for their sovereign a descendant of the Saxon kings: and he showed himself no unworthy descendant of them, not only by his many conquests, but by doing much to revive the Saxon customs, which were so favourable to English liberty. He began by taming the pride of the nobles, whom he forced to pull down or deliver up their castles, and recalled the grants made by Stephen. He also disbanded the foreign soldiers hired by that king, and gave charters to many towns. He then set himself to lessen the power of the clergy, who now claimed a complete independence of the civil courts, and who would allow no causes that concerned their own order to be tried in any but the ecclesiastical courts; by which such trifling punishments were awarded

for the most enormous crimes, that the abuse became unbearable; and if any attempts were made to interfere with these claims, the clergy appealed to Rome. They doubtless believed that they were thus upholding the liberty of the Church, but they little knew the true nature or due limits of its independence. They forgot also that in an undivided Christian nation, the clergy and laity are the Church,—not the clergy only; that the clergy and laity are the State,—not the laity only. And that to exempt the clergy from the operation of the ordinary laws is but to favour, without really benefiting, merely a portion of the Church. These false views caused appeals to the Roman see, the power of which had now become almost unquestioned; nay, such consideration was shown to it, that when on some occasion Pope Alexander was met by Henry and the King of France, those monarchs held his stirrup as he mounted, and led his horse by the bridle.

On the death of Archbishop Theobald the king looked out for some successor to that prelate, on whom he could rely in his endeavours to curb the encroachments of the clergy, and appointed Thomas à Becket, whom he had himself raised to the office of Lord Chancellor. Never did a king take a step more fatal to his own views. No sooner was Becket consecrated, than he set himself to resist the wishes of the king, and Henry found himself bitterly opposed by the very prelate on whose aid he had counted. He summoned, however, a large council at Clarendon, (A.D. 1164), where certain articles (called the Constitutions of Clarendon) were agreed to, by which the clergy were to be tried in the civil courts, and no appeal allowed to Rome without the king's licence. Becket subscribed these articles; but afterwards withdrew his concession; and being assailed by Henry with a succession of vexatious measures, he once (after a solemn mass²) took in his own hands the silver cross that was usually carried before him, and thus walked into Henry's presence-chamber, where, amidst the assembled nobles, he singly maintained his claims with a courage

² The word (*Missa* or) Mass originally signified any office of prayer, and its name was derived from the words used, at the conclusion of prayers, to the people, "*Ite, missa est,*" which implied that they were dismissed. Afterwards the word was more closely appropriated, as at this period, to the office of the holy Eucharist.

that would have been worthy of admiration, had his cause been as sacred as it appeared in his own view. He then fled into France, where he was protected by Louis, and sanctioned by the Pope in excommunicating his enemies, and in threatening to lay the whole kingdom under what was called an Interdict. An Interdict was at that time a recent invention of the Church of Rome, by which the spiritual privileges of a whole nation, men, women, and children, were affected. In fact, instead of depriving merely the guilty of the consolations of religion, as the ancient and lawful measure of excommunication did, it involved guilty and innocent alike. No sooner was it promulged, than the churches were closed; the church-bells were silenced; no public service was performed; and the very Sacraments were withheld except from children and the dying. The fear of such a sentence operated most strongly on men's minds at that time; and probably the king himself, if he did not dread its spiritual effect, was alarmed lest it should shake his subjects' allegiance. At any rate, finding at length that his interests were much affected by that prelate's residence in France, he agreed to an accommodation, and Becket returned to England, to act with more arrogance and contempt of the royal authority than ever. When his proceedings were reported to Henry, the king passionately exclaimed, "Have I no one to rid me of the insults of this priest." These words induced four knights to follow the archbishop to Canterbury, where they slew him on the very steps of the altar in the northern transept of the cathedral; a deed which caused Henry the deepest concern, and, as he foresaw, involved him in great difficulty. Becket was canonized by the Pope as a saint about two years after his death; and all the actors or abettors in his murder were at once excommunicated. To show his sorrow for having in any degree occasioned the archbishop's death, Henry some time afterwards walked in solemn procession to the shrine which was built over Becket's tomb, and having bared his shoulders, submitted to be severely scourged by the monks.

The happiness of Henry's reign was marred by this long dispute. In his many wars with Louis, he was very successful; and also in repelling William the Lion, king of Scotland, who, being taken prisoner at Alnwick in A.D.

1174, did homage to Henry for his crown. The great glory, however, of his reign was the conquest of Ireland, which was then divided among five³ petty kings; and the aid of Henry was sought by Dermot, king of Leinster, against the kings of Connaught and Meath. Henry had already meditated the conquest of that island, of which he had received a grant from Hadrian IV. (Nicholas Breakspear), the only Englishman that was ever pope. He was, therefore, glad to avail himself of the opening thus afforded, and sanctioned an enterprise which was successfully conducted by Richard Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, who married Dermot's daughter, and succeeded to his crown. Henry himself afterwards landed in Ireland, and the princes of that country submitted to him without resistance. It has ever since been annexed to England, and is now united with great Britain into one kingdom.

The troubles of Henry did not cease with the removal of Becket. The latter years of his life were saddened by the rebellions of his sons; nor can this domestic unhappiness excite surprise, when his treatment of Queen Eleanor is remembered; for Henry had several children by a lady not his wife, whose seclusion at Woodstock, under the name of the fair Rosamond, has been the groundwork of much romance, probably little founded on fact. Notwithstanding this unfaithfulness, the king was tenderly attached to his lawful offspring. He had his eldest son Henry crowned in England; but that prince died before his father; as also did Geoffrey, whose widow bore a son named Arthur, after her husband's death. Richard was entrusted with the government of Guienne, and too often leagued himself with his father's enemies in open rebellion. This was, indeed, the case at the time of Henry's death; which was hastened by the deep mortification of having been worsted in battle by Philip of France, assisted by Prince Richard, and of finding that John, his fourth and favourite son, was in league against him. He died A.D. 1189, and was buried in the nunnery of Fontevrault in Anjou. He has ever been regarded as one of the ablest and greatest of our kings, and was as remarkable for courtesy as for courage. The origin

³ The five kingdoms at that time were Leinster, Ulster, Connaught, Munster and Meath. The most powerful of the petty kings who ruled these districts generally took the title of king of Ireland.

of a scheme of militia, the division of the kingdom into circuits, to each of which itinerant judges were assigned, are attributable to his arrangements. And a memorial of his wisdom still exists in our present system of the judges' circuits, and in the constitution of the three Courts of Queen's Bench, Common Pleas, and Exchequer. It is to be lamented that a character so eminent should have been stained by the vice which has been alluded to.

In the time of Henry, the features of what is called the Norman style of architecture for churches began to be softened in progress towards a style generally named the Early English. The walls of churches were built slighter; the round arch gave way to, or was blended with, the pointed; and a greater height was given to the edifices. But the full results of this change were not yet apparent. Among the constructions, the dates of which are found in the latter half of the twelfth century, are the choir of Canterbury and the nave of Ely cathedrals. The nave of Lincoln cathedral was probably commenced soon after them by St. Hugh, its bishop, whose name is still retained in our English calendar.

CHAPTER XI.

RICHARD I. (CŒUR DE LION.)

*Born at Oxford. Buried at Fontevrault. Reigned 10 years.
From A.D. 1189 to A.D. 1199.*

Archbishops of Canterbury.

Baldwin, A.D. 1184—1191.

Reginald, A.D. 1191—1191.

(Vacancy one year.)

Hubert, A.D. 1192—1205.

RICHARD was surnamed Cœur de Lion, on account of his remarkable courage, and the rude magnanimity of his character. He showed deep feeling at the sight of his father's corpse, and dismissed the counsellors by whose evil advice he had been led into undutiful conduct.

The great renown of this king is derived from his share in the third crusade, which he undertook in A.D. 1190, in

concert with Philip Augustus, king of France, whose perfidious and selfish character was a striking contrast to the reckless hardihood and generous self-devotion of Richard.

The transactions of kingdoms, as well as the habits of social life, were much influenced at this time by the laws of chivalry; a system which, with much that was visionary and fantastic, called forth many noble and generous qualities of mind, and softened and elevated the rude manners of the time. Under this singular institution, the fiercest warriors bound themselves to rescue all who were oppressed; to defend at any personal hazard the honour of the weaker sex; and to maintain the most unsullied faith and purity of Christian truth. Great kings were ambitious of being admitted by knighthood into the orders of chivalry; and the fame of Richard is due to him in his character of a peerless knight rather than as a great king. His prowess was such, that the Syrian mothers are said to have stilled their children by the terror of his name; if a horse suddenly started in the way, his rider was wont to exclaim, "Dost thou see King Richard in the bush?" and the Sultan Saladin, who was often defeated by him, paid the homage of a deep admiration to his high spirit and undaunted bearing. His victories were fruitless of any real or lasting good; and in his return from Palestine, this champion of Christendom was seized by Leopold, duke of Austria, whom he had offended, and cast into prison: nor did his subjects know the fate of their sovereign till the place of his captivity was discovered by a minstrel named Blondel, who had been in Richard's service. It is said that Blondel wandered through all Germany to find the place where his master was confined; and when he came to any castle, he sung a melody which was known to Richard, who (he thought) would make himself known by singing the same song in return, if he heard it in his prison. In this way the place where he was confined was found out. A vast ransom was demanded for the king, and was raised by his subjects with great alacrity. His return struck his enemies with dismay, and especially his brother John, who had basely taken advantage of his absence to raise a party for himself. The generous king was easily reconciled to his brother; and in the later years of his reign he gained many victories over his old enemy, Philip of France. He was shot by an arrow

in one of his wars, before the castle of Chaluz; and when the archer who had shot it was brought into his presence, the king demanded what injury he had done him that he should take away his life? The man replied, that his father and brothers had been slain by Richard's hand, and that he would willingly die to rid the world of one who had caused so much bloodshed. Richard was so struck with this answer, that he commanded the man's life should be spared. He died from the unskilful treatment of his wound, A.D. 1199, having made a will in favour of his brother John, and to the prejudice of his nephew Arthur, the rightful heir to the crown, as the son of John's elder brother Geoffrey.

CHAPTER XII.

JOHN (LACK-LAND).

*Born at Woodstock. Buried at Worcester. Reigned 17 years.
From A.D. 1199 to A.D. 1216.*

Archbishops of Canterbury.

Hubert, A.D. 1192—1205.
(Vacancy two years.)

Stephen Langton, A.D. 1207—
1228.

THE odious and despicable character of John was not likely to reconcile his nobles to the irregularity of his title; but they seem to have felt that that defect gave them advantage, in struggling with their sovereign for the privileges of their own order. The cause of Arthur was, therefore, left to such support as it might receive from Philip Augustus, by whose aid it prospered for a time on the continent. At length the youthful prince was taken in battle, and is believed either to have been stabbed by the hand of his uncle, or to have been put to death by his order in the castle of Rouen. Philip well knew how to avail himself of the horror excited by this deed; and succeeded in compelling John to abandon Normandy, which was reunited to the French crown.

A dispute now arose between John and the monks of Canterbury about the election of an archbishop, which led in the first instance to the deep humiliation of the king, but

finally to his concession of the Great Charter of English freedom. The settlement of this dispute was taken by the Pope (Innocent III.) into his own hands, and he appointed Stephen Langton to the vacant see. This archbishop, though he was thus thrust upon the Church of England by an unwarrantable assumption of power on the part of the bishop of a foreign Church (the Pope), yet in the end was a blessing to his country. He was ever one of the foremost in withstanding the tyranny of John in the State, and the aggressions of the Pope on the Church of England. He was also a man of no inconsiderable learning and attainments. Had John resisted his appointment by legal means, he might possibly have been supported by his subjects, who suspected Langton's title, and were not yet aware of his character; but the violent measures which he took only gave advantage to the Pope, who laid the kingdom under an interdict, pronounced the deposition of John, and desired Philip to take possession of England. The king of France prepared an armament to execute this sentence, and Cardinal Pandulf was sent over apparently to support that monarch, but with secret instructions to receive the submission, which John in his abject terror was ready to make. To his lasting shame, in the midst of a vast concourse of people at Dover, he laid his crown at the feet of Pandulf, who kept it five days, and trampled under foot the tribute-money which John paid in token of fealty to the haughty legate. The French king was now ordered to give up his enterprise, but he resolved to persist. His fleet, however, was attacked by the English, and almost wholly destroyed.

By thus declaring himself a vassal of Rome, John secured the protection of the Pope in the contests with his barons, in which his continued perfidy and rapacity involved him. The cause of English freedom, on the other hand, found, as we have said, a champion in the archbishop, whose support of the barons in their struggle against the odious tyrant, drew on him the anger of Pope Innocent, by whom he was after a time suspended, nor was he restored till the following reign.

The barons, having raised a great army, and made themselves masters of London, forced the king to submit to their demands. He met them on Runnymede, between Staines

and Windsor, and the Great Charter of English freedom, called Magna Charta, was sealed at that spot (A.D. 1215). By this charter the rights enjoyed by the prelates and barons in Saxon times were confirmed. Its principal articles were, that no tax should be levied without the consent of the national council, except for the ransom of the king, if taken prisoner, or on the knighthood of his eldest son, or the marriage of his eldest daughter. No freeman was to suffer but by the judgment of his peers. The abuses of the feudal law in the wardship and marriage of heirs under age were to be remedied, and the extortions practised by the royal foresters were to be done away with.

The faithless king at once set himself to recover the independence which he considered himself to have lost by this charter. He retired to the Isle of Wight, until he had raised an army of foreign mercenaries, with which he committed such ravages, that the barons invited over Prince Louis of France, who was connected with the royal house by his marriage with Blanch of Castile, John's niece, and did homage to him at London as their sovereign. The arrogance of this prince, and his partiality to his own countrymen were very favourable to the cause of John; who was beginning to recover his ground, when he lost his treasure and great part of his forces by a flood, as he was crossing the marshes in Lincolnshire. Sickening of a fever, occasioned by grief for this loss, he died at Newark, A.D. 1216, when the kingdom was in a most distracted state, and leaving behind him the memory of one of the weakest and most wicked princes that ever sat on a throne.

It was in this reign that the warriors of the fourth crusade, on their way to the Holy Land, took Constantinople, and established for more than fifty years, from A.D. 1204 to A.D. 1261, a Latin dynasty of the Greek empire in the families of Flanders and Courtenay. A sort of crusade, not one of those properly so called, was also sanctioned about the same time against the Albigenses in the south of France, on the ground of their religious opinions. It may be that those opinions were not free from errors; but they are remarkable as an early protest against the corruptions of practice and doctrine in the Church of Rome, which were now at their height.

CHAPTER XIII.

HENRY III. (OF WINCHESTER.)

Born at Winchester. Buried in Westminster Abbey. Reigned 56 years. From A.D. 1216 to A.D. 1272.

Archbishops of Canterbury.

Stephen Langton, A.D. 1207—1228.
(Vacancy one year.)

Richard, A.D. 1229—1231.
(Vacancy three years.)

Edmund, A.D. 1234—1240.
(Vacancy five years.)

Boniface, A.D. 1245—1270.
(Vacancy three years.)

HENRY was but nine years old at the time of his father's death; but the Earl of Pembroke, who became regent, was happily a nobleman of high principle and great ability. By his wise measures he revived the loyalty of the English for their lawful sovereign, and succeeded in forcing the prince of France to withdraw from the kingdom.

The death of this earl was a great loss to Henry; who being as weak and fickle as he was haughty and rapacious, was for the most part governed by a succession of favourites. He swore to the observance of the Great Charter at his coronation, but his whole reign was an endeavour to break loose from its restraints.

He was at first attached to Hubert de Burgh, whom he made high justiciary and earl of Kent. This nobleman had been most faithful to Henry's family. His influence over the king became odious to the nobles, and was undermined by Peter de Roches, bishop of Winchester, a far meaner and more worthless favourite, who brought over swarms of Gascons and Poitevins, to the great disgust of the English. Hubert was twice forced to take sanctuary, and most narrowly escaped with his life; but at last he recovered some degree of his former favour, while De Roches was in turn disgraced and sent abroad. The king then attached himself to the relatives of Eleanor of Provence, his queen. His fondness for foreigners, whom he enriched with the plunder of his subjects, was one cause of continual disagreements between him and the barons; and their disgust was heightened by seeing that he suffered the Pope to take

a similar course, in disposing of the Church endowments in favour of aliens. The livings were in the hands of Italians, who drew vast sums from the kingdom: and as Henry upheld the Pope in his various extortions, so the latter was ever ready to absolve the king from his oath to observe the Great Charter, or any other statutes to which he was forced by his barons to swear. The Pope had offered the crown of Sicily to Henry's second son; and this offer was made a plea for draining the kingdom of treasure, which went to enrich the Pope. The same offer was afterwards made to Charles of Anjou, brother of the French king, who led an army to Naples, which seated him on the throne.

Henry was generally supported by his brother Richard, earl of Cornwall, a far abler prince than himself: but on Richard's being chosen king of the Romans, Henry found himself left alone to contend against his barons, who were now headed by Simon de Montfort, earl of Leicester. Henry had been extravagantly fond of that nobleman, and given him his own sister in marriage; but the fondness had given place to the most bitter aversion, and Leicester took arms against his sovereign, as well as opposed him in the parliaments, which were held from time to time in hope of obtaining money. On one occasion, when the king entered the hall of parliament, he found the nobles all clad in complete armour, and inquired whether he were their prisoner? They were satisfied at the time with thus frightening the feeble king; but at a later period he was taken prisoner by Leicester, at the battle of Lewes, (A.D. 1264,) and detained, together with Prince Edward his son, for a considerable period, while the kingdom was governed in his name by twenty-four barons, at whose head was Leicester.

Nothing could be more wretched than the state of England at this time. No man was secure in his life or property; and the country was overrun by bands of robbers, who committed the greatest excesses. The Jews were especial sufferers, not only indeed in England, but throughout Europe, in this reign, and those both before and after it. They were cruelly tortured in order to extort their wealth, and this avarice and oppression were cloaked under a seeming zeal for Christianity. Deeply, however, as England suffered from the extortions and insurrections which

mark this period, it was amidst such storms as these that the cradle of English liberty was rocked. An overruling Providence was preparing the way for the establishment of religion and justice, by the very sufferings which appeared to ensure the ruin of England. Thus, on the one hand, the extortions of the Pope disposed men's minds to question his authority; and a manly protest was made against them by Robert Grosteste, bishop of Lincoln from A.D. 1234—1253, a prelate of great piety, as well as learning and courage. On the other hand, the necessity which Leicester felt of some support in his violent course, led him to assemble a parliament, in which the Commons were for the first time represented. Knights chosen by the shires were at first added to the nobles and prelates, and in a later assembly, (A.D. 1265,) the towns also were represented by burgesses. The proceedings of these early parliaments were perhaps rude and tumultuous; but the principle was thus established, that the commonalty have a right to a voice by representatives in the great national council.

A jealousy having sprung up between Leicester and Gilbert de Clare, earl of Gloucester, the latter nobleman aided Prince Edward to escape from those who had him in custody. The prince was suffered to ride out, surrounded by guards and soldiers; and being one day mounted on a very swift horse, he proposed to his guards that they should ride races with each other; which they consented to do, for the sake of sport. When Edward saw that their horses were quite tired, he set spurs to his own, and soon left the guards behind. He rode to a hill on which he had seen a man mounted on a grey horse, who waved his bonnet; and the prince knew by this signal that his friends were at hand. Having assembled an army, the prince defeated the barons in the battle of Evesham (A.D. 1265), in which Leicester lost his life. This nobleman had put the aged king in front of the battle, that he might be killed by his own friends; and Henry would have been slain, had he not cried out to the soldier who was on the point of cutting him down, "I am Henry of Winchester, your king."

Prince Edward was able, after this victory, to re-establish his father's authority so firmly, that he was not afraid to join in the seventh and last of the enterprises called crusades, with Louis, king of France, called St. Louis.

That monarch lost his life in the course of this expedition from an epidemic fever before Tunis (A.D. 1270). It is remarkable that on a former crusade, the sixth, he had been taken prisoner by the sultan of Egypt, in A.D. 1250.

Prince Edward was still absent from England when his father died, A.D. 1272. The sentiment which he expressed when he heard of that event, is worthy of being remembered. He had received at the same time news of the death of his son John; and on being asked why he mourned for his father more than for his child, he answered, "That God might give him many children, but he could have but one father."

The reign of Henry is the longest in English history, except the reign of George III. During it and the reign of his predecessor, in spite of the disturbance of the times, the fine arts had made progress; the choirs of Worcester, and Wells, and the greater portion of Salisbury, cathedrals are monuments of the advances made in Church architecture. The prevailing style was that called the Early English or first pointed style. Henry III. was buried in Westminster Abbey, where his fine tomb may still be seen.

The two reigns also are not wanting in literary names: John of Wallingford; Walter of Coventry; John Fordeham, chaplain to King John; and Matthew of Paris, a monk of St. Alban's, are those most worthy of note.

CHAPTER XIV.

EDWARD I. (LONG-SHANKS.)

*Born at Westminster. Buried in Westminster Abbey.
Reigned 35 years. From A.D. 1272 to A.D. 1307.*

Archbishops of Canterbury.

Robert Kilwarby, A.D. 1273—1278.	Robert Winchelsea, A.D. 1294—
John Peckham, A.D. 1278—1292.	1313.
(Vacancy two years.)	

EDWARD was surnamed Long-shanks, from his remarkable length of limb. While in Palestine he distinguished himself by his valour against the infidels, and was wounded by

an assassin whom they hired to kill him. He was able himself to dispatch his cowardly foe; but the dagger with which he had been struck was poisoned, and the wound was likely to be fatal. It has been said that Edward owed his life to the affection of his queen, who ventured to suck the venom from his arm. He was welcomed by his subjects on his return; and by the wisdom of his laws, and his just severity in enforcing them, he restored the kingdom to its former prosperity. This king has been called the English Justinian, from his resemblance to the celebrated Eastern emperor, who arranged and digested the civil law. In this reign the constitution of parliament was more fixed, the principles of just taxation were more plainly admitted, and the means of obtaining justice were more sure. It was now that the principal landowners in the several shires were made justices of the peace. A restraint was also laid on the practice of making over landed property to the Church, by certain laws called the statutes of mortmain, from two Latin words, which signify, "in dead hands;" implying that lands so disposed of were lost to the country, so far as the "living" and active participation in its burdens was concerned. This restraint was absolutely necessary; for by practising on the fears of men in their last moments, the monks had obtained vast grants of land all over the kingdom; and since what was thus bestowed could not be alienated, and was not subject to the same taxes with which other property was burdened for the defence of the kingdom, great injury was done to the commerce as well as the military strength of the country. Creditors were, in like manner, often defrauded of their rights, by the power which landowners possessed of so entailing their estates upon their children as to evade the payment of just debts. This and similar abuses were remedied by several laws of this king, who did more to settle the administration of justice on its present footing, than any other of our earlier kings. He punished offenders without respect of persons; and once when his son, Prince Edward, was influenced by Gaveston, his favourite, to insult the Bishop of Lichfield, the king gave orders to commit him to prison, that he might learn to respect the laws which he was afterwards to administer. His severe inquiries into many abuses often exposed him to the resentment of his nobles; and when Earl Warenne

was questioned as to his right to his estate, that nobleman unsheathed a rusty sword, as the title by which his ancestors gained their property, and with which he was prepared to defend it to the last.

It must be owned, that in the wars which Edward carried on, whether in Wales or Scotland, he did not always follow those principles of justice which he did so much to establish among his subjects. The conquest of Wales was one of the great events of this reign. It was then governed by Prince Llewellyn, who was induced to withdraw the allegiance which the Welsh princes had usually owned to the kings of England, and thus gave Edward a plea for attempting the conquest of that part of the island. His first invasion was boldly resisted; but Llewellyn was after a time defeated and slain (A.D. 1282), and his brother David was taken and executed with great barbarity. As the Welsh were easily excited by their bards, who rehearsed the ancient glories of their fathers, and their descent from the Britons, the original possessors of the whole island, the king most ruthlessly commanded that those national minstrels should be assembled and put to death; and his execution of this purpose is a lasting stain on his memory. He built strong castles at Conway, Caernarvon, and elsewhere, of which such noble ruins still remain; and, to reconcile the Welsh to their loss of independence, he presented to them his infant son, born at Caernarvon, as their prince. He had promised to give them a ruler born in Wales, who could not speak a word of English. The Welsh could not charge him with having broken the letter of his word, though perhaps they expected a very different performance of it. From this time, the eldest son of our sovereign has always had the title of Prince of Wales conferred on him soon after his birth.

Having added Wales to his kingdom, Edward next sought some plea for taking part in the affairs of Scotland, and soon found one to his purpose. The heiress of that country was the daughter of the king of Norway, and had been betrothed to Prince Edward. She was called the Maid of Norway, and died before she arrived in Scotland. The crown was then claimed by twelve competitors; and Edward took advantage of such divided interests, to obtain a recognition of his claim (as lord superior) to act

as umpire in the question. The principal claimants were Robert Bruce and John Balliol; and the crown was awarded by Edward to Balliol, because the feebleness of his character was likely to favour his designs. He soon began to treat Balliol as a subject; and on his unexpected revolt, defeated him at Dunbar (A.D. 1296), and forced him to resign his crown. Edward on that occasion brought away from Scotland the famous stone on which the kings were always crowned, and he destroyed the records of the kingdom. The stone thus brought away had long been regarded by the Scotch as a kind of pledge of empire. It was placed by Edward in Westminster Abbey.

Indignant at Edward's usurpation, the Scotch made Sir William Wallace their regent; but after most heroic efforts, that great leader was defeated at the battle of Falkirk (A.D. 1298); and having been taken prisoner, was executed with the same cruelty which had been exercised on David, the Welsh prince.

With all his severity, Edward could not break the national spirit of the Scotch. A new conspiracy was formed by Bruce and Cumin, who succeeded Wallace as regent. Cumin betrayed the design to Edward; and was himself killed in a monastery at Dumfries by Bruce, who asserted his own title to the throne, and was soon crowned at Scone. This great prince was afterwards reduced to such extremity, that he was hunted even by his own countrymen from one hiding place to another, while Edward reduced the Scotch to the most helpless misery, and wreaked his vengeance even on Bruce's sisters, and on the Countess of Buchan, whom he inclosed in cages, and hung over the battlements of different castles. Nothing, however, could make the noble Bruce despair of delivering his country; and his renewed efforts provoked the king to swear that he would march into Scotland, and never return until he had subdued it. He kept his word so far, that he never returned. He was taken ill at Carlisle, and died at Burgh-on-the-Sands, A.D. 1307.

Stern as Edward showed himself to his enemies, he was tenderly attached to Eleanor his queen; and several records of that attachment still exist in the crosses which he built at the several places where her remains rested on their way from Lincoln to be interred at Westminster.

They are not merely memorials of his affection, but proofs of the skill of the architects and builders of the period, the *Freemasons*; an incorporated body of men, who had for more than two centuries been employed on almost all the cathedrals and churches in Europe. To this and the following reign we attribute the choir of Exeter, the nave of York, the lantern of Ely cathedral, and portions of Bristol abbey and Lichfield cathedral. The Early English style had now given way to one which, from its richness, was termed the Decorated, which continued to advance in grace and elegance until the time of Richard II., when it began to yield to another called the Perpendicular,—a style superior, perhaps, in gorgeousness and splendour, but inferior in lightness and grace.

The clergy were sadly oppressed by Edward, who was continually extorting money from them to carry on his wars; and it is to be feared that one of the perverse practices which was remedied at the Reformation,—the withholding the Cup from the laity in the administration of the Holy Communion,—may be traced to this period. But, on the whole, the spiritual condition of the Church was much improved under the Archiepiscopates of Peckham and Winchelsea, who filled the throne of Canterbury during Edward's reign. For instance, the former held a synod (or assembly of the Church) at Lambeth in A.D. 1281, where more frequent preaching to the people, and in plain unlearned language, was enjoined; and various subjects were specified on which the priest of every parish was to instruct his flock, four times a year, or oftener if need be. These subjects were: the Fourteen Articles of Faith; the Ten Commandments; the Two Evangelical Precepts of Love; the Seven Works of Mercy; the Seven Deadly Sins; the Seven Principal Virtues; the Seven Sacraments; and the synod went on to state the manner in which these topics might be best brought home to men's minds. Of course, as the above enumeration will have shown, there were points on which the synod was more curious than Scripture required; but it is evident that it had the well-being of the Church at heart. The efforts of Archbishop Winchelsea were directed against an evil which had for some time been growing up in the Church,—the holding of more benefices than one by the same person, and, con-

sequently, the neglect of parishes by their legitimate and appointed pastors.

CHAPTER XV.

EDWARD II. (OF CAERNARVON.)

Born at Caernarvon. Buried in Gloucester Cathedral.

Reigned 20 years. From A.D. 1307 to A.D. 1327.

Archbishops of Canterbury.

Robert Winchelsea, A.D. 1294—1313.	Walter Reynolds, A.D. 1314—
(Vacancy one year.)	1327.

EDWARD of Caernarvon did not inherit his father's wisdom together with his throne. His reign is similar to that of his grandfather, whom he resembled in character. He was governed by unworthy favourites, whom he chose for their personal beauty and accomplishments, and whose insolence became insufferable to his barons. The first of these was Piers de Gaveston. It was hoped that Edward's marriage with Isabel of Valois, sister to the French king, would divert him from his weak attachment to that favourite; but it remained as strong as before. He was forced by the barons to send Gaveston out of the kingdom, but soon found some excuse for recalling him; and at length the favourite was seized by Guy, earl of Warwick, and beheaded at a hill near Warwick, still called Gaverside.

While Edward was thus at variance with his barons, Robert Bruce had carried every thing before him in Scotland; and the king now resolved to recover what his father had gained in that country at such a sacrifice of human happiness. He marched to the relief of Stirling at the head of a vast army, which was totally defeated by Bruce at the battle of Bannockburn. (A.D. 1314.) This battle is one of the most glorious events in Scottish history, and secured the independence of that country under Bruce, whose name is joined with that of Wallace, as the most renowned and dearest in the annals of Scotland.

The reign of Edward was afterwards disturbed by insurrections in Ireland and Wales; but still more by the con-

sequences of his affection for Hugh Despencer, who (together with his father) succeeded to the place which Gaveston had held in the king's affections, and was equally odious to the barons from his rapacity and pride. The barons were now headed by the Earl of Lancaster, the cousin of Edward, and the Despenchers were forced from the kingdom. Recalled by Edward, they were the occasion of a new revolt, in which the Earl of Lancaster was taken prisoner, and beheaded at Pontefract, with many of the noblest barons in England. The Despenchers, however, excited the bitter enmity of Queen Isabel; and that princess took advantage of a pretext to withdraw to her brother's court, with Prince Edward, her son. While at Paris, she gave herself up in the most criminal manner to the influence of Roger Mortimer, a nobleman who had special ground of enmity against the Despenchers. Having arranged a treaty of marriage between her son and Philippa, daughter of the Count of Hainault, she returned to England with an army raised by that prince, and landed in Suffolk, where she was joined by great numbers of the nobles. The king was forced to fly into Wales. The elder Despencer was taken and beheaded, at the age of ninety; the younger was afterwards hanged; while Edward, having been discovered, was kept a prisoner, and forced to resign his crown to his son (then fifteen years of age); during whose minority the queen and Mortimer were declared regents. (A.D. 1326.)

Such was the miserable end of Edward's reign; during which, the effect of those measures which his father had taken to resist the influence of the pope, was lessened by Edward's continual applications to Rome for assistance against his barons.

It may be remarked, that at this time the popes had removed their court from Rome to Avignon. A violent contest had been going on between the popes and Philip the Fair, king of France. On the death of Benedict XI., Philip obtained the election of a French prelate, who took the name of Clement V., and who removed his court to this French city, where they resided about seventy years. It may also be mentioned, that in this reign the order of Knights Templars was dissolved. It was an order of soldier-monks, originally instituted at Jerusalem by the Crusaders. Having possessed itself of great wealth in all

the kingdoms of Europe, and being governed only by its own superior, its power became dangerous to the governments under which it existed, and was now put down by a common effort.

CHAPTER XVI.

EDWARD III. (OF WINDSOR.)

Born at Windsor. Buried in Westminster Abbey. Reigned 50 years. From A.D. 1327 to A.D. 1377.

Archbishops of Canterbury.

Simon Mepham, A.D. 1327—1333.	Simon Islip, A.D. 1349—1366.
John Stratford, A.D. 1333—1348. (Vacancy one year.)	Simon Langham, A.D. 1366—1368.
Thomas Bradwardine, A.D. 1349—1349.	William Wittlesea, A.D. 1368—1375.
	Simon of Sudbury, A.D. 1375—1381.

THE deposed king was at first entrusted to the Earl of Lancaster, and treated with much gentleness; but was soon removed to Berkeley castle, and committed to the care of two ruffians named Gurney and Maltravers. Under their charge, he was lodged in damp vaults, and even hurried from place to place at night in the hope that he might be provoked by ill-usage to put an end to his own life. It is said that when he desired to be shaved, he was supplied with dirty water from a ditch. At last he was secretly despatched in his prison. Shrieks were heard from the castle at midnight; and it is believed that the unhappy prince was killed by means of a red-hot iron, which was passed into his body in such a way as to cause no outward marks of violence.

Mortimer had been made Earl of March, and surpassed Gaveston and Despencer in haughtiness. He procured the execution even of the Earl of Kent, brother to the late king, on a charge of treason; and perhaps thought his power secure at the very moment when his downfall was at hand. The young king had reached his eighteenth year, and had given proofs of spirit and ability in delivering the northern counties from an invasion of the Scots under Bruce. He resolved to submit no longer to a yoke which was disgraceful in so many ways; and was able to surprise the Earl of March in the castle of Nottingham by a secret

passage still called Mortimer's Hole. It was in vain that the queen cried out to him, "Fair son, have pity on the gentle Mortimer." The favourite was seized, and afterwards hanged near London; while Isabel was confined to one of her manors, where she lived many years, and received little notice from Edward beyond an annual visit of form.

The king soon led an army into Scotland in support of Edward Balliol, and gained a great victory over David Bruce at Halidon-hill, near Berwick-upon-Tweed, A.D. 1333. He would probably have conquered that kingdom, had he not been eager to prosecute his claim to the crown of France. This claim was derived through his mother, and had no true ground, according to the Salic law, which prevailed in France, and, indeed, in most European states during the middle ages. Its enactments were, that there can never be a queen regnant; and that the daughters of kings cannot succeed to the throne, or transmit any right to their sons to the prejudice of the nearest heir male by a male descent. It involved him in wars which bore no lasting fruit, beyond the renown for chivalrous bravery and generosity, which throws such a brilliancy over the memory of Edward and his son, the Black Prince, so called from the colour of his armour. It must also be owned that the victories of these great leaders tended to form in the English that high national character and noble self-reliance, without which no people has ever been truly great.

A great fleet had been collected at Sluys to oppose the landing of Edward; and was completely destroyed (A.D. 1340) by the English, with small loss to themselves. To how many naval engagements between France and England has a similar result been granted!

The greatest victories, however, were gained at Cressy and Poitiers; and have made the names of those places familiar to every Englishman.

The battle of Cressy was fought with Philip of Valois, king of France, A.D. 1346. The French are said to have had an army of 120,000 men, while the number of the English was not more than 30,000: and Edward himself only watched the battle from a neighbouring hill, that (in his own words) his son might "win his spurs;" the gilt spurs, which were the distinction of knighthood. Thirty thousand of the

French fell in this battle, while the loss of the English was very trifling. Among others the King of Bohemia was slain, and his crest of three ostrich plumes has ever since been used by the Princes of Wales with the motto, "Ich Dien," I serve. It is said that cannon were first used at Cressy, and contributed to Edward's success; but this and many other battles were mainly gained (under Divine Providence) by the skill of the English archers, the most renowned in Europe.

The queen (Philippa) had been left regent in England, and within a few months of the battle of Cressy she led an army to the field against David Bruce, who had taken advantage of Edward's absence to make an invasion into England. The Scotch were defeated at Nevil's Cross, near Durham; and David being taken prisoner, was brought to London, where he was detained many years. After this great service to her husband, Philippa joined him at the siege of Calais, which had then lasted nearly eleven months. The city was forced to surrender for want of food; and Edward required that six of the chief burgesses should attend him with halters round their necks, ready for execution. The dismay which this demand occasioned among the citizens was quieted by the noble devotion of Eustace de St. Pierre, who offered his life for his townsmen; and his example was followed by five other leading burgesses. They brought the keys to Edward, and fell on their knees, imploring his mercy. The king was long inexorable, but at Philippa's intercession he agreed to spare their lives.

The battle of Poitiers took place about ten years after the victory of Cressy. The Black Prince had about 12,000 men under his command, and was met by John, king of France, with an army of 60,000. On seeing the numbers of the French the prince exclaimed, "God help us! it only remains to fight bravely." Some attempts were made to prevent bloodshed, but John would agree to nothing short of a surrender of the prince and a hundred of his knights. Edward received this proposal by exclaiming, "God defend the right!" and the result of the battle which then took place was, that the French army was destroyed, and John himself taken prisoner. The mildness and generosity with which Edward treated the captive king were equal to his courage in the field. He ascribed his victory to the will of

God when he waited on the king at the table; and declared himself, as a subject, not entitled to the honour of sitting with him. When he brought his royal prisoner into London, he rode on a small pony by his side, while John was mounted on a noble charger. It should be mentioned, to the lasting honour of this king, that having been set free on terms which his son was unable to fulfil, from the opposition of the French nobles, John voluntarily gave himself up to Edward, observing, that if truth were banished from the rest of the earth, it should have place in the bosom of kings. He died in England, but his son, Charles the Wise, succeeded in wresting from the English most of their foreign possessions. The Black Prince was himself forced by the state of his health to return to England, where he died (A.D. 1376) about a year before his father. His health had suffered much in a war which he undertook in Spain, in support of Pedro the Cruel, who little deserved the aid of so chivalrous a prince.

The king did not long survive his son: he died A.D. 1377; and is said to have been shamefully neglected in his last moments by his own servants.

The revival of literature made great progress in this reign. Chaucer, the father of English poetry, passed great part of his life at Edward's court; and his wife's sister, Katharine Swynford, became the third wife of John of Gaunt. Froissart, the French chronicler, a native of Hainault, was some time in the service of Queen Philippa, and was patronized by her. It has been already remarked, that at no period were the principles of church architecture better understood. It was by this king that St. Stephen's chapel, (since used for deliberations by the House of Commons,) and the greater part of Windsor castle, were built. The Lady-chapel of Ely cathedral, and several portions of St. Alban's abbey, rose during his reign. He did much also for the commerce of his kingdom, by inviting over Flemish artisans, whom he settled in Norfolk. It should be mentioned, too, that from this reign the Commons seem to have sat as a distinct House of Parliament.

It is, however, still more important to observe, that the nullity of King John's surrender of his crown to the pope was nobly maintained by Edward and his parliament. The king was assisted in this manly course by the theolo-

gical attainments of Wickliffe, then Master of Balliol college, who opposed many of the corruptions which the Church of Rome had engrafted upon the Scriptures; and declared, almost in the words of the English Church many years afterwards, that "Holy Scripture containeth all things necessary to salvation." He opposed with great earnestness the mendicant or begging friars, who were especially devoted to the upholding the pope's authority; and from this he proceeded to attack the monks, who formed the other ⁴ branch of the *regular* clergy.

We have seen that he was by no means the first to discover that things were not quite right in the Church; but he was the first to stand forth as a stern rebuker of what was wrong. His opinions were in some respects mistaken, but he had much truth on his side; and hence he is reckoned the first of the English reformers.

The order of the Garter was instituted in this reign. The king is said to have picked up a garter, which had been dropped in a ball-room by the Countess of Salisbury. As he presented it to her, he used the words which became the motto of the order instituted on this trifling occasion, "*Honi soit qui mal y pense.*" (Shamed be he who thinketh evil of it.)

This was in the year 1349. In this same year the whole of Europe was visited by one of the most terrible plagues ever known.

⁴ At this period ecclesiastics were of two classes. 1st, *Regulars*, who professed to live by a self-imposed rule, *regula*; and to observe vows of poverty, chastity, and obedience. These were, first, Monks; and secondly, Friars. 2ndly, *Seculars*, who professed no rule beyond the general precepts of the Gospel; and who were therefore taunted by their opponents with mixing themselves more in worldly (secular) affairs than became persons devoted to God. But what was originally a term of reproach, became their ordinary designation.

CHAPTER XVII.

RICHARD II. (OF BOURDEAUX.)

Born at Bourdeaux. Buried at Langley, in Herts; but afterwards removed to Westminster. Reigned 22 years. From A.D. 1377 to A.D. 1399.

Archbishops of Canterbury.

Simon of Sudbury, A.D. 1375—1381.	Thomas Arundel, A.D. 1396—
William Courtenay, A.D. 1381—1396.	1413.

EDWARD was succeeded by his grandson Richard, the only son of the Black Prince. The new king was only in his eleventh year, and the heirs next in succession to himself were the descendants of Lionel, duke of Clarence, a son of the late king, who died before his father. The surviving sons of Edward were John of Gaunt duke of Lancaster, Edmund earl of Cambridge, afterwards made duke of York, and Thomas of Woodstock, afterwards duke of Gloucester. A council of regency was appointed, in which the uncles of the king had seats; but certain bishops and nobles were associated with them.

The war still lingered on in France, and to meet its expenses, a poll-tax was raised of three groats a head for every person, rich or poor, of fifteen years and upwards. At this time the lower orders in various parts of Europe had been inflamed by the violent language of men, who dwelt with too much reason on the bondage in which they were held, and maintained the natural equality of all. In England these notions had been spread abroad by a priest named John Ball; and the people lent a ready ear to what agreed so well with their cherished traditions of the Saxon laws and customs. The poll-tax came upon a people in this state of mind like a spark on a prepared train. The first dispute was likely to cause an explosion; and it was not long before such a dispute arose. The tax was demanded of a young girl at Dartford, and refused on the ground that she was under the age. The brutal collector offered a gross insult to the girl, and was struck down at a blow by her father, who was called Wat Tyler, and was supported by the people in his bold deed. He was soon at the head of a vast multitude, chiefly from the

eastern counties, whom he led to London. Rank, property, and learning were denounced. The mob struck off the heads of every gentleman or foreigner whom they met. The Temple and Savoy Palace were plundered; and while the king proceeded to Mile End to meet some of the insurgents, Tyler himself broke into the Tower, and murdered the archbishop, with other obnoxious persons. The archbishop, Simon of Sudbury, had foreseen what would happen, and had spent the night previous to his death in prayer. He was officiating in the chapel of the Tower when the rebels entered. His last words to the multitude are worth remembering. He said, "that when a man could not live either with conscience or honour, death was an advantage to him; and that he thanked God he had never been in a better preparation to leave the world." And then he suffered a cruel death, strong in the might of prayer. Other acts of violence were at hand. In this emergency, when a panic seemed to have seized the upper classes, the king, then only fifteen years old, behaved with remarkable judgment and presence of mind. He addressed the mob with mildness, and promised them the redress of their grievances. In Smithfield, he was met by Wat Tyler at the head of 20,000 men, and a conference took place; in the course of which Tyler was observed to play with his dagger, and even lay his hand upon the king's bridle. Indignant at this insolence, the lord mayor, William Walworth, struck the rebel from his horse with a mace, and he was despatched by the king's attendants. The people bent their bows to avenge the death of their leader; but the king rode boldly up to them, crying, "What mean ye, my lieges? Tyler was a traitor. Come with me, and I will be your leader." They followed him to Islington, where he renewed the promises which he had made to their companions; and they returned peaceably to their homes.

The presence of mind thus shown by Richard gave promise of a glorious reign, which was increased by his marriage with Anne of Bohemia, long remembered for her virtues, as "good Queen Anne." This promise was far from being realized. The king neglected the affairs of his kingdom, and abandoned himself to pleasure and trifling pursuits, in company with his favourite De Vere, whom he made Duke of Ireland. John of Gaunt was now absent in

Castile, which he claimed in right of his wife; and the ambitious Duke of Gloucester took advantage of his nephew's unpopularity, to possess himself of the reins of government, by forcing him to appoint a commission to manage the business of the nation. Many executions took place of persons who were odious to Gloucester, and the king was under his yoke till his 22nd year, when he availed himself of a full council to resume the royal power. Gloucester was soon afterwards arrested and sent to Calais, where it is believed that he was murdered by his nephew's order. Richard now ruled with an utter disregard to law, and many of the nobles who had more or less joined with Gloucester, saw reason to fear for their own safety. Among them were the Duke of Norfolk and Henry Bolingbroke, duke of Hereford, son of John of Gaunt. It seems that Norfolk sounded the other on the means of averting their common danger; but was betrayed by him to the king, and accused of high treason. Richard decided that the question should be tried by wager of battle; and the combatants had actually met in the lists, when the king interfered, and banished both from England; Norfolk for life, and Hereford for ten years. During Bolingbroke's exile his father died, and when Henry claimed the lands which had belonged to his father, they were unjustly withheld by Richard, who seemed to think himself above all law. Enraged at this injustice, Bolingbroke landed at Ravensburgh¹, in Yorkshire, with sixty followers, and was joined by the Earl of Northumberland, together with his son, surnamed Hotspur, and many others. He had obtained assistance from the Duke of Bretagne, whose widow he afterwards married. On leaving their court he is said to have given its pleasing name to the blue flower which is commonly called "forget me not," by blending it in his badge or device with the French motto which he before had used for that purpose, and which is rendered by those words. When he landed at Ravensburgh, he gave out that he came only to claim his own, though doubtless he meant all along to possess himself of the crown. Richard, after much loss of time, returned from Ireland to crush the

¹ A town near the mouth of the Humber, which has been washed away by the encroachments of the sea upon the land.

rebellion, and landed at Milford in Wales; but finding that his subjects deserted him, he surrendered himself to Bolingbroke, by whom he was brought to London, and persuaded to resign the crown. Henry declared himself king, in full parliament, A.D. 1399, by the title of Henry IV. He claimed the crown as heir to Henry III., on a groundless notion that Edmund, called Crook-back, from whom he was descended by his mother's side, was the eldest son of that king, and had been set aside on account of his deformity. This false pretension was admitted at the time, but Henry's unlawful title was the occasion of the wars between York and Lancaster, which afterwards desolated the kingdom.

The opinions of Wickliffe gained ground in this reign, and to take the most effectual means of spreading them, he translated the Bible into English. Adhelm, a Saxon bishop, had translated the Psalms into Saxon in the year of our Lord 706, and Bede had translated the whole Bible; but for a long time none but Latin versions of the Scriptures had been permitted to be used. Wickliffe's followers were called Lollards⁶. Wickliffe himself was brought before the convocation, but escaped through the protection afforded him by the Duke of Lancaster. He died at his own rectory of Lutterworth, A.D. 1384. About thirty years after his death his remains were dug up and burnt, by a decree of the council of Constance.

Among the worthies of Richard's time may be mentioned William of Wykeham, bishop of Winchester. He rebuilt a large portion of the cathedral of Winchester, and founded a college there, and another at Oxford.

⁶ The word Lollard is probably derived from *lullen* or *lollen*, an old Dutch word, meaning to sing or chant. A passage in Chaucer would suggest its derivation from the Latin *lolium*, tares, as if the Lollards were the tares in the field of the Gospel.

CHAPTER XVIII.

HENRY IV. (BOLINGBROKE.)

Born at Bolingbroke. Buried at Canterbury. Reigned 14 years. From A.D. 1399 to A.D. 1413.

Archbishop of Canterbury.

Thomas Arundel, A.D. 1396—1413.

THE dethronement of a prince has generally been followed by his murder; and it is to be feared that the case of Richard is no exception to this statement. A conspiracy was formed in his favour, and its explosion was rapidly followed by his death at Pontefract castle. The most probable account of this deed of darkness is, that Sir Piers of Exton was sent with seven attendants to murder him; from one of whom Richard snatched a battle-axe, and killed some of the others, but was overpowered by numbers. His remains were interred at Langley, in Hertfordshire, and followed by Henry himself; who detained Edmund, the young earl of March in confinement, as being the descendant of Lionel, duke of Clarence, and thus the rightful heir to the crown. This young prince was the son of Roger, earl of March, who had once been destined by Richard to be his successor; and on his father's death his claims also had been recognized by Parliament.

The reign of Henry is little but a succession of conspiracies. He was soon called to meet Northumberland and Hotspur in the field, who had been so forward in helping him to mount the throne. They formed an alliance with Earl Douglas, whom they had taken prisoner in a battle with the Scots at Homildon-hill, A.D. 1402; and also with Owen Glendower, a Welsh chieftain, who maintained a lawless independence among the mountains of Wales. The king defeated these conspirators in the battle of Shrewsbury, A.D. 1403; but this rebellion was only the prelude to others, which continually disturbed him in the possession of his usurped authority. It has also been said that he had great anxiety from the character of his eldest son, who gave indeed indications at times of the high qualities which he afterwards showed, but addicted himself to low companions and plea-

tures. This opinion has perhaps been the less questioned from the use which our great dramatist Shakspeare has made of it; but it has been combated with many weighty objections⁷. It should, however, be mentioned, that the prince is said on one occasion, to have drawn his sword on Chief Justice Gascoyne, when that magistrate refused to release one of Henry's riotous companions. The judge committed the prince to prison, who submitted meekly to the sentence. It is added, that when the king heard of the affair, he exclaimed, "Happy the king who has a judge so resolute in executing the law, and a son so willing to submit to it!"

In this reign was passed a law to authorize the burning of heretics. It seems probable that Henry, who felt the weakness of his title, consented to this law in the hope of enlisting on his side the clergy, who lost no time in carrying out the statute. Archbishop Arundel was especially active in violent measures against the Lollards. His successor, Archbishop Chicheley, the founder of All Souls' college, Oxford, was equally averse to them; but he distinguished himself honourably on several occasions by the firmness with which he resisted the exorbitant claims of the pope to jurisdiction in England.

Henry made an ungenerous use of an accident which put the young prince of Scotland (afterwards James I.) in his power. He had been sent abroad by his father, to be safe from the plots of an uncle, and was taken by an English cruiser. Henry detained him as his prisoner, but saw that he was well educated.

The cares inseparable from royalty were in Henry's case embittered by remorse of conscience, and undermined his health. He died in the forty-sixth year of his life, A.D. 1413, and was succeeded by his eldest son.

⁷ See Memoirs of Henry V. by Rev. J. E. Tyler, B.D

CHAPTER XIX.

HENRY V. (OF MONMOUTH.)

*Born at Monmouth. Buried at Westminster. Reigned
9 years. From A.D. 1413 to A.D. 1422.*

Archbishop of Canterbury.
Henry Chicheley, A.D. 1414—1442.

THE accession of Henry V. was hailed by the whole nation with feelings of hope and joy. He removed the remains of Richard to Westminster, and himself attended as chief mourner. He set at liberty the young Earl of March, and restored the Percy family to their estates and honours. Whatever be thought of his conduct in early life, it seems certain that from this period he showed himself a sincere Christian; and though severe measures were taken against the Lollards early in his reign, through the mistaken zeal of the clergy, there is reason to think that Henry was averse to put in force the law that had been passed against those reformers. The principal victim of this false zeal was Sir John Oldcastle, lord Cobham. He was condemned, after a noble defence of his opinions before the primate Arundel and other bishops; but made his escape from the Tower, and his friends seem even to have attempted to seize the king at Eltham. The attempt failed, and led to many executions. Cobham himself was at length taken, and with great cruelty was hung as a rebel and burnt as a heretic. But Henry was himself then in France.

The king was eager to reconquer the possessions of his ancestors in France, which, notwithstanding the victories of Edward, had gradually been wrested from the English. His eagerness was shared by his subjects, and the distracted state of France, under Charles VI. (who was subject to fits of mental derangement), favoured his design. An army was assembled at Southampton; but some check was occasioned by the discovery of a conspiracy, ostensibly in favour of the Earl of March, but really formed by that prince's brother-in-law, Richard, earl of Cambridge, to forward his own ambitious views. The conspirators were condemned and executed; but, to the king's honour, the Earl of March,

though the rightful heir to the crown, being found guiltless of this conspiracy, was unmolested; and Henry sailed to the mouth of the Seine, where he took the town of Harfleur, and divided a vast treasure among the soldiers. His army, however, being reduced by sickness to little more than 12,000 men, he determined to withdraw to Calais, and on his way was met by the French army, amounting to 100,000 men, near the castle of Agincourt. His defeat seemed inevitable, and the French made so sure of it that they passed the night in revels, and even fixed the ransom of Henry and his barons. The English employed the time in devotional exercises, and Henry went from post to post, cheering and inspiring his men. Hearing an officer say that he wished for more men from England, he declared that he wished not for one man more. If God gave them the victory, the glory would be the greater; and if not, the loss to England would be the less. The result of the battle was one of the most astonishing victories on record. The onset was made by the English, who, after using their arrows, rushed on the French with swords and battle-axes, and routed them with great slaughter. The Duke of Alençon had sworn to take or slay the king, and in personal combat with him clove his helmet; but was struck down by Henry and slain. The flower of the French nobility fell in this fatal field. It is computed that 8000 gentlemen were slain, while the loss of the English is said to have been not more than eighty.

The following year (A.D. 1416) Henry crossed again to France, and recovered great part of Normandy: but at last agreed to a truce: and his hopes of conquering the kingdom would perhaps have ended here, had not a general horror been excited against the dauphin, for having occasioned the murder of the Duke of Burgundy. The son of that prince devoted himself to the English cause; and Henry marched to Troyes, where a treaty was concluded, by which Henry was declared Regent of France during the life of Charles VI., whose daughter (the Princess Katharine) he was to marry. He was also declared heir to the crown at the death of Charles.

The young queen was brought to England, and the joy of the nation was at its height when she gave birth to a son at Windsor. Henry was then in France, where he was

not long afterwards joined by his wife and child; and the magnificence of his court at Paris was far beyond what appeared about the person of the reigning king. A fatal disease now attacked him; under which he died, after a brilliant reign of less than ten years, commending his soul to the mercy of God, and the care of his infant son, who was not a year old, to his brothers, the Dukes of Bedford and Gloucester.

The queen-dowager afterwards married Owen Tudor, a gentleman of Wales, by whom she had Edmund, earl of Richmond, and Jasper, earl of Pembroke. The descendants of this marriage were destined to sit on the throne of England.

CHAPTER XX.

HENRY VI. (OF WINDSOR.)

Born at Windsor. Buried at Chertsey, but removed to Windsor. Reigned 39 years. From A.D. 1422 to A.D. 1461.

Archbishops of Canterbury.

Henry Chicheley, A.D. 1414—1442.	Thomas Beuchier, A.D. 1454—
John Stafford, A.D. 1442—1452.	1486.
John Kemp, A.D. 1452—1454.	

THE English interest in France was managed after Henry's death, by the Duke of Bedford; in whose absence the Duke of Gloucester was regarded as protector of the infant king in England. Gloucester was a favourite with the people, and long remembered as "good Duke Humphrey;" but was bitterly opposed by Cardinal Beaufort, a son of John of Gaunt by Katharine Swynford, whom John married at a later period, and whose children by that prince, before her marriage to him, were made legitimate by Richard II.

In France, the English were for a short time successful against the dauphin, who became Charles VII. by the death of his father. They had laid siege to Orleans, with a view to complete the conquest of the kingdom, when the face of things was changed by the appearance of one of the most remarkable persons recorded in history. This was Joan of Arc, a maiden of humble birth, who believed herself commissioned by God to expel the English. Charles

gladly gave ear to a claim which favoured his interest; and by the enthusiasm which her presence excited in the French, and the terror which it spread among the English, she succeeded in fulfilling her word that the siege of Orleans should be raised, and that Charles should be crowned at Rheims. From this time the English interest declined. Henry was indeed crowned at Paris, and Joan herself, having been taken prisoner, was cruelly burnt as a sorceress at Rouen; but after the death of the Duke of Bedford, a treaty was made between Charles and the Duke of Burgundy; and notwithstanding the skill and courage of Talbot, earl of Shrewsbury, the English were finally driven out of France, about the year 1450.

In the mean time the quarrels between Gloucester and Beaufort were hurtful to the king; who, though of a mild and devout character, was found, as he grew up, to have but feeble powers of mind. The cardinal, in order to strengthen his party, arranged a marriage between Henry and Margaret of Anjou, daughter of Regnier, the titular king of Sicily; and the English saw with indignation, that instead of receiving any dower with his bride, the king was advised to make over to her uncle the provinces of Maine and Anjou. Margaret was a woman of great beauty and a masculine understanding, and acquired a complete sway over Henry. Two years after this marriage Gloucester was arrested, and within a few days was found dead in his bed. Beaufort, who outlived his nephew only six weeks, was suspected of having caused his death; and if this suspicion be just, the deed was as impolitic as wicked; for by Gloucester's removal a way was opened to the ambition of Richard, duke of York, whose claim to the throne (as heir of the Earl of March on his mother's side) was better than Henry's. The popular discontent, which arose from the disasters in France and mis-government at home, was fomented by this prince, and broke out in an insurrection, under a very obscure leader. The real name of this person was Jack Cade, but he boldly gave himself out to be John Mortimer, son of a Sir John Mortimer (uncle of the last Earl of March), who had been sentenced by Parliament, and executed for high treason at the beginning of this reign. In spite of the absurdity of his story, he was able to gather followers, to defeat the royal forces at Sevenoaks,

and enter London in triumph, where he put to death the Lord Say and others of the nobility. His men having quarrelled, he was forced to flee, and was slain by a gentleman named Iden, in Kent, in whose garden he was hid.

The Duke now raised an army for the avowed purpose of reforming the abuses in the government. He was met by the Duke of Somerset at St. Alban's (A.D. 1455), and a battle took place, in which Somerset, Clifford, and other noblemen fell. Finding that his chance of a peaceable succession was lessened by the birth of a Prince of Wales, York at length openly claimed the crown; and a war began between the houses of York and Lancaster, which for a period of thirty years (A.D. 1455—1485) carried enmity and sorrow to every hearth in England, and cut off successive generations of many noble families in the field or on the scaffold. It is called the War of the Roses, because a white rose was the badge of the house of York, and a red rose the cognizance of the house of Lancaster. During these civil wars, the English possessions on the continent (except Calais) were annexed to the French crown; and this loss may be reckoned a real gain, among the many evils of these contests; because, when peace came back, the undivided care of the government was given to the true prosperity of the nation.

The claims of York were supported by the powerful family of the Nevilles, at the head of which was the Earl of Salisbury. His son, the Earl of Warwick, who was the greatest leader of the age, defeated the forces of Henry at Northampton (A.D. 1460); and it was agreed in a parliament afterwards holden in London, that Henry should have the crown for his life, and York should be declared his successor. The queen, however, raised an army in the north, with which she completely routed the Yorkists at Wakefield (A.D. 1460), where the duke himself fell into her hands, and his second son, the Earl of Rutland, a youth of seventeen, was butchered in cold blood by Lord Clifford, in revenge for his father's death at St. Alban's. It is said that York was crowned by his enemies, in derision, with a wreath of grass. His head was then struck off, and set upon the gates of York.

He left, however, several sons, of whom Edward, the eldest, succeeded to his claims. Edward was a prince of

great courage and ability, as well as personal beauty, but of a licentious and cruel character. He was able to give the queen's forces a total defeat at Mortimer's Cross, near Hereford (A.D. 1461); and though Margaret, on the other hand, worsted the Earl of Warwick in a second battle at St. Alban's, in the same year, and recovered possession of her husband's person, she was forced to retire when Edward joined his forces to those of Warwick. That prince then marched to London, where he was received by the citizens, and proclaimed king, A.D. 1461. Shortly afterwards, his brothers George and Richard were created Dukes of Clarence and Gloucester.

CHAPTER XXI.

EDWARD IV.

Born at Rouen, in Normandy. Buried at Windsor. Reigned 22 years. From A.D. 1461 to A.D. 1483.

Archbishop of Canterbury.

Thomas Bourchier, A.D. 1454—1486.

THE triumphs of the House of York appeared to be confirmed by a victory gained a few days afterwards at Towton in Yorkshire. Edward had ordered that no quarter should be given, and nearly one-half of the Lancastrians perished. Margaret withdrew to the continent, but, by the assistance of Louis XI., was able to land in the north the following winter. She was defeated at Hexham; and in the course of this campaign, was once seeking concealment in a forest with her son, when she was met by a robber. Her courage and presence of mind saved her from this danger. Boldly approaching the man, she said, "Friend, I commit to thy care the son of good King Henry." The outlaw accepted the trust, and conducted Margaret and the prince to their friends. She again withdrew from England; while Henry, after being concealed for a year in Lancashire, was betrayed and brought to London, where he was treated with great indignity, and consigned to the Tower.

It was not long before Warwick began to be dissatisfied

with the prince whom he had seated on the throne. He had been sent to France to negotiate a marriage between Edward and the sister-in-law of Louis. During his absence it happened that the king was struck with the beauty of Elizabeth Woodville, lady Grey; and finding her virtue proof against his solicitations, at once made her his queen, regardless of the slight which would thus be put upon Warwick. The estrangement thus occasioned was increased when the king heaped titles and offices on the relatives of the queen; and he was himself deeply offended at the marriage of the Duke of Clarence with one of the earl's daughters. After a time both Clarence and Warwick were forced to fly the kingdom, and a reconciliation took place between them and Queen Margaret, cemented by the marriage of Prince Edward her son with Warwick's youngest daughter. Assisted by King Louis, the earl on his return to England was joined by vast numbers, and took his measures so ably, that Edward in his turn was forced to withdraw to Flanders; while Henry was brought from the Tower, and walked in procession with the crown upon his head to St. Paul's. From this time Warwick obtained from the people the title of King-maker. Nothing could seem more desperate than the prospects of Edward; but one of the remarkable features in these wars is the suddenness with which the scene so often changed; and so it was in this instance. Edward landed with a few followers at Ravensburgh, where Bolingbroke had landed about seventy years before; and, like him, professed that he came only to claim his inheritance. The city of York opened its gates to him: he was rejoined by the fickle Clarence; and having been received in London, he there possessed himself again of Henry's person, and resumed the royal title. He then advanced to meet Warwick at Barnet, in Hertfordshire, where a battle took place on Easter-day (1471), in which Warwick fell, and Edward was completely victorious. This was soon followed by another with the same result at Tewkesbury against Margaret, who had received the news of the battle of Barnet on her landing. She was taken prisoner, together with her son, whose name was Edward. The prince, being asked by the king what had brought him to England, replied, "I came to recover my father's kingdom." The

king struck him in the face with his gauntlet, and the noble youth was killed by the swords of Clarence and Gloucester, the Lord Hastings, and others.

The remainder of Edward's reign was little more than a course of cruelty and licentiousness. Margaret was ransomed by the King of France, but Henry was put to death in the Tower (as was supposed) by the Duke of Gloucester, who succeeded also in awakening suspicions in Edward's mind against Clarence, which led to the untimely end of that prince.

He had for some time been greatly estranged from the king, and his feelings were kindled into a flame by an act which shows Edward's recklessness and cruelty. He was hunting in the park of one Thomas Burdett, a friend of the Duke of Clarence, and out of spite to his brother he killed a favourite white hind belonging to this gentleman. Burdett, in his natural passion, exclaimed that he wished the horns of the deer were in the belly of the man who advised the king to this insult. For this speech he was tried, for his life, and hanged at Tyburn. Clarence went boldly to the council, and so provoked the king by declaring this sentence unjust, that he was arrested and sent to the Tower. It is also said, that Edward's fears had been raised by a ridiculous prophecy, that the name of his successor should begin with a G, which was applied to George, duke of Clarence. (The event, as we shall see, showed that it was more applicable to Gloucester.) Being condemned to death on a charge of treason, the duke was secretly put to death in the Tower; and an idea got abroad that he was drowned in a butt of malmsey.

Edward allied himself with his brother-in-law, Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy, against Louis XI.; and on one occasion led an army into France. He gained, however, little credit by this expedition, and concluded a separate peace with Louis. In the year 1476, Charles was routed and slain by the Swiss at the battle of Nanci.

The dissipated habits of Edward were doubtless fatal to his health, and he died (1483) in the forty-second year of his age; leaving two sons, Edward, prince of Wales, and Richard, duke of York, and five daughters.

It is worth mentioning that to this reign, unfavourable as it seemed to be to every thing except matters connected

with war, we trace the introduction of the art of printing into England. William Caxton, a citizen and mercer of London, was attracted, while on business in Germany, by the fame of the then new invention. He made himself acquainted with it there, and, after some practice, returned home to England in 1471, and set up a printing-press in the Abbot's House, at Westminster. The first work printed in this country was one on the Art of Chess.

CHAPTER XXII.

EDWARD V.

Born in the Sanctuary at Westminster. Buried (it is believed) in the Chapel of the Tower. Reigned from April 9, A.D. 1483, to June 26, in the same year.

Archbishop of Canterbury.

Thomas Bouchier, A.D. 1454—1486.

THE new king, who was only in his thirteenth year when his father died, was at Ludlow, under the care of his uncle, Lord Rivers. Being sent for to London, he was escorted by that lord; and on his way was met by the Duke of Gloucester. The duke professed much loyalty to his nephew, but arrested Rivers, and Lord Grey, a son of Edward's queen by her first husband. On hearing of this arrest, the queen took sanctuary at Westminster, with the Duke of York (her son), and her five daughters. The king was conducted to the Tower, and Gloucester was declared Protector. It was plainly his purpose to seize the crown; and finding that the attachment of Hastings to the late king was in his way, he resolved to remove him. Entering the council-chamber, he bared his arm, which had a natural defect, and exclaimed, "See how that sorceress, my brother's wife, with Shore's wife, and others, have withered my arm." Shore's wife had been led astray by Edward, and was then living with Hastings. "If," said Hastings, "they have done this, they should be punished as traitors." "Do you answer me," cried Gloucester, "with *ifs* and *ands*, as if I charged them falsely? I tell you they have done it, and

thou hast joined with them in the villany." He then arrested Hastings, and desired him to make short shrift, for he would not dine till his head was struck off. Hastings was hurried out to the little green in front of the Tower Chapel, and beheaded on a log of wood. On the same day Lord Rivers and his friends were beheaded at Pontefract.

Richard then demanded that the Duke of York should be given up by his mother. The unhappy queen gave him a last embrace, and burst into tears as he left her. He was taken to Edward in the Tower, who showed great delight in having his brother restored to him.

Having thus the princes in his power, Gloucester took means to persuade the people that they were not legitimate, on the plea that Edward IV. was already married to Eleanor Talbot, widow of Lord Butler, before he espoused their mother, Elizabeth Woodville. As for the son of George, duke of Clarence, it was maintained that his father's attainder disabled him from ascending the throne. In all his plans, Gloucester was assisted by Henry, duke of Buckingham, and a scene was got up, in which he was requested by the lord mayor to take possession of the throne. After a well-feigned reluctance, he assented to the proposal, and was crowned, together with his wife, just three months after his brother's death. That lady was Anne of Neville, the widow of Edward of Lancaster, in whose slaughter Richard had assisted. They had one son, who was now created Prince of Wales.

CHAPTER XXIII.

RICHARD III. (CROOK-BACK.)

*Born at Fotheringay. Buried at Leicester. Reigned 2 years.
From A.D. 1483 to A.D. 1485.*

Archbishop of Canterbury.
Thomas Bourchier, A.D. 1454—1486.

RICHARD soon filled up the measure of his guilt by the murder of his nephews. They were smothered in their sleep, by Sir James Tyrrel and three other ruffians. The king had scarcely gained the crown by these unequalled

[H. S. I.]

crimes," when a plot was formed to deprive him of it; at the head of which was the very Duke of Buckingham who had helped him to seize it, and who seems to have been dissatisfied with the reward of his treason. He was himself a descendant of Thomas of Woodstock, one of the younger sons of Edward III., and might have shown some title to the crown on his own account. The plan, however, by which he hoped to avenge himself on Richard was, to unite the houses of Lancaster and York by the marriage of Henry Tudor, earl of Richmond, with Elizabeth, the daughter of Edward IV. Henry, who was residing at the court of Bretagne, was descended from John of Gaunt, by his mother, the Lady Margaret Beaufort; at this time the wife of Lord Stanley, her third husband. He was the last surviving prince of the line of Lancaster; and though the title of the Beaufort family was very questionable*, Henry was looked upon as the representative of the Lancastrian claim.

The first result of this plot was disastrous. Henry sailed from St. Malo, and was driven back by tempests. A great flood in the Severn, which lasted for ten days, dispersed the forces of his supporter, Buckingham, who was soon afterwards betrayed by an old servant with whom he had taken refuge, and seized and beheaded at Salisbury.

The next attempt of Henry was more successful: he landed at Milford Haven, and having marched into the heart of the kingdom, was met by Richard near Bosworth, Leicestershire. A battle took place, in which Lord Stanley went over to his son-in-law; and Richard seeing that he was lost rushed into the thickest of the fight, and was slain. His crown was carried to the Earl of Richmond, who was saluted in the field by the title of Henry VII.⁹

Richard possessed his ill-gotten crown little more than two years, during which he lost his son, and is thought to have hastened the death of his wife, with a view to unite himself to his niece, Elizabeth of York. From some defect in one of his shoulders, he was commonly called Crook-

* The Act of A.D. 1389, for the legitimization of John of Gaunt's children by Katharine Swynford, contained a proviso that no right to the crown should be obtained under it.

⁹ The body of Richard, having been stripped, was thrown across a horse, and buried at Leicester.

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ASTOR, LENOX AND
TILDEN FOUNDATIONS.

Wall,
A.

Edmund Crookback,
Earl of Lancaster,
died 1296; married
Blanche of Artois.

Thomas,
beheaded 1321.

Henry, died 1345;
married Matilda of
Chauvett.

Henry Grismond,
died 1361.

Blanche; married
John of Gaunt (see
his line).

Thomas of Woodstock,
Duke of Gloucester.

William of
Windsor.

Anne; married Earl of
Stafford.

Humphrey, Duke of
Buckingham, killed at
Northampton 1460; mar-
ried Anne of Westmore-
land.

Humphrey, killed at St.
Alban's, 1455; married
Margaret of Somerset.

Henry, Duke of Buck-
ingham, who promoted
Richard III.'s interest,
beheaded 1483; mar-
ried Katharine Wood-
ville, sister of Elizabeth
Woodville.

Edward, Duke of Buckingham,
beheaded by Henry VIII.

[Henry IV. pretended that
Edmund Crookback was
the elder son of Henry
III., and that therefore
his claim through him
was better than that of
Edward I.'s descendants.]

Cam-
Anne,
, Duke
ee his
arriage
York
o the

back. His mind is said to have been harassed with images of terror, from consciousness of the many crimes which he had crowded into a life of thirty-two years.

The royal line of Plantagenet ended with this king. Among the princes of this house are some of the ablest, as well as some of the weakest, of the English sovereigns. They were mostly engaged in struggles with their barons, and wars in France, which were in many respects favourable to the liberties of England, from the necessity of appealing to the Commons for assistance. The art of printing was becoming more and more known and valued, and the dawn of less barbarous times is henceforth discernible. Some of the opinions for which Lord Cobham died were maintained in the reign of Henry VI. by Reginald Pecock, successively Bishop of St. Asaph and Chichester; whose writings were especially directed against the notion that the Romish Church is infallible. Very different accounts have been given of his tenets on other subjects, but there seems little doubt that he held several errors, though he appeared to be earnest on the side of truth.

CHAPTER XXIV.

HENRY VII.

Born at Pembroke. Buried in Westminster Abbey. Reigned 24 years. From A.D. 1485 to A.D. 1509.

Archbishops of Canterbury.

Thomas Bouchier, A.D. 1464—	Henry Dene, A.D. 1500—1504.
1486.	William Wareham, A.D. 1504—
John Morton, A.D. 1486—1500.	1533.

HENRY would probably have met with more opposition, had it not been understood that he was to marry Elizabeth of York. He was himself unwilling to owe his crown to her title, and the marriage did not take place till after his own coronation. The submission which he received from the friends of the house of York was never very hearty. His manners were cold and repulsive; and they disliked him for his distant behaviour to his queen, as well as for continuing the imprisonment of the young Earl of

the son of the unfortunate Duke of Clarence. He was especially detested by Margaret, the duchess-dowager of Burgundy (sister of Edward IV.), and that princess was always ready to assist, if she did not contrive, the plots and impostures by which Henry was harassed.

A youth named Lambert Simnel was taught by a crafty priest to personate the Earl of Warwick, who was said to have escaped from the Tower. Simnel was taken to Ireland, and his claims were acknowledged by many noblemen in that island. The king produced the real earl; but Simnel's cause was supported by the Earl of Lincoln, the son of Elizabeth, another of Edward's sisters, who succeeded in raising some troops. A battle took place at Stoke, near Newark (A.D. 1487), in which Lincoln was slain, and Simnel taken prisoner. He was made a scullion in the royal kitchen.

Another imposture of the same kind was contrived a few years after. It was given out that Richard, duke of York, had escaped from the Tower, and a young man, named Perkin Warbeck, was persuaded to assume his character. The Duchess of Burgundy saluted the impostor as "the White Rose of England;" the King of Scots received him with all honour, and gave him the hand of his own relative, the Lady Katharine Gordon. Warbeck afterwards landed in Cornwall; but being met by the royal forces, he secretly withdrew, and took sanctuary at Beaulieu, in Hants. He was at length committed to the Tower, where he persuaded the Earl of Warwick to join him in attempting an escape. The plot was discovered, Warbeck was hung at Tyburn, and the earl soon afterwards beheaded on Tower-hill. The death of this prince, whose faculties were weakened by his long and early imprisonment, is a great blot on Henry's memory. It has been thought that he was tempted to the crime by a message from Ferdinand, king of Spain, whose daughter, the Princess Katharine, he was anxious to obtain as a wife for his son, Prince Arthur. Ferdinand sent word to Henry, that his title would never be sure while Warwick was yet alive. This marriage afterwards took place, but Prince Arthur died within six months of its celebration. The king also married his eldest daughter (Margaret) to James IV., king of Scotland.

The remainder of Henry's reign was free from outward insurrections; but he became very unpopular, from the

arbitrary character of his government, which he carried on, in a great measure, by means of an arbitrary court of law now for the first time instituted, which was called the Star-chamber, from the decorations of the room in which it met. The king presided there in person, and sanctioned its proceedings. He was also a man of unbounded avarice ; to gratify which he employed two creatures of his own, named Empson and Dudley, in extorting money from his subjects by reviving obsolete laws and dormant claims of the crown, and thus he amassed an unusual amount of treasure. His reign, however, was very beneficial to England, which needed peace and a firm government. It was Henry's policy to break the overgrown power of the nobles ; and with this view he enforced the law which forbade any nobleman to give his livery to any retainers besides his household servants. The practice thus forbidden had been abused to such a degree, that the king-maker, Warwick, is said to have had 30,000 retainers who wore his badge.

A characteristic anecdote is told of Henry, which shows how little he was withheld by friendly feeling from enforcing a law, which both favoured his policy and filled his coffers. He had been received with great splendour by the Earl of Oxford, one of the most faithful friends of the house of Lancaster. As the king left the castle, a large number of retainers in the earl's livery were drawn up in two rows to do honour to his guest. Henry artfully complimented the earl on his hospitality and the numbers of his household servants. Oxford replied that they were retainers who wore his livery on such occasions to do him honour. The king started, and exclaimed, "My lord, I thank you for your good cheer ; but I must not endure to have my laws broken in my sight. My attorney must speak with you." The earl was fined 15,000 marks.

The king died in the year 1509, and was succeeded by Henry, his only surviving son.

In this reign the way to the New World was pointed out by Columbus, a native of Genoa, in the service of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. England had nearly had the honour of sending forth Columbus on his voyage ; but his brother Bartholomew was detained by a series of accidents from applying to Henry for assistance, until it was too late. The required aid was at once promised ; but Columbus had

already set sail. Henry was vexed at being crossed in a matter in which he had shown more than his usual liberality, and determined to do something in the way of discovery. Accordingly, in the year 1496, after Columbus had returned to Europe, he fitted out a small fleet under the command of John Cabot, a Venetian: the results were the discovery of Newfoundland and other regions, of which Columbus had scarcely dreamed. Thus Henry had some honour for naval enterprise; indeed, we must not forget that it was he who laid the foundation of the British navy.

Events, which need not be anticipated, caused this reign to be the last in which church architecture flourished; nay, with a few exceptions, in which colleges were founded. Henry built the chapel which bears his name, at the east end of Westminster Abbey. His mother, Margaret, countess of Richmond, began St. John's college, Cambridge, and left its completion to her executors, Fox, bishop of Winchester, and Fisher, bishop of Rochester. Waynflete, bishop of Winchester, the founder of Magdalen college, Oxford, must be assigned to an earlier reign, for he died in 1486, the year after Henry's accession to the throne. The chapels of King's college, Cambridge, and of St. George's, Windsor, belong also to the earlier part of the fifteenth century.

CHAPTER XXV.

HENRY VIII.

*Born at Greenwich. Buried at Windsor. Reigned 38 years.
From A.D. 1509 to A.D. 1547.*

Archbishops of Canterbury.

William Wareham, A.D. 1504—1533.

Thomas Cranmer, A.D. 1533—1555.

THE young king was handsome in person, and popular and jovial in his manners. He had been carefully educated, and not only excelled in martial exercises, but had acquired considerable scholarship, and was well read in the writings of the school divines. His marriage with Katharine of Arra-

gon, his brother's widow, was celebrated with great magnificence; and his passion for pageantry and pleasure contrasted favourably in the opinion of his subjects with the avarice of his father, whose agents (Empson and Dudley) were now tried and brought to punishment.

Henry soon led an army with little reason into France; and though the war, where he was present, resembled rather the pomp of tournaments than more serious conflict, yet a battle was gained near Terouenne, which was called the "Battle of Spurs," as the French made more use of their spurs than of their swords. The same year, however, the Earl of Surrey gave the Scots one of the most disastrous defeats they ever sustained, in the battle of Flodden Field, A.D. 1513. James IV., who had taken part with Louis against his brother-in-law, was slain in this battle with many of his principal nobles. His son (now James V.) was at this time an infant. On the peace which followed, Henry gave his sister Mary in marriage to Louis XII., who died three months after his nuptials, and was succeeded by Francis I. Mary then married the Duke of Suffolk, to whom she had been attached before.

The king at this time lavished his favour on Thomas Wolsey, the son, as was said, of a butcher at Ipswich, who from his talents for business had been brought forward in the last reign, and though in holy orders, was no less useful to Henry in affairs of state, than welcome as the associate and minister of his pleasures. He became chancellor of England as well as archbishop of York, was made a cardinal by the pope, and enjoyed an enormous revenue, with which he lived in royal state, and on more than one occasion himself aspired to the Popedom. His good offices with the king were sought both by Francis I. and by the Emperor Charles V. (who was also king of Spain), the two most powerful sovereigns in Europe.

The vanity of Henry was flattered by finding how much his alliance was courted by these rival monarchs. Charles was the nephew of Queen Katharine, and visited the English court at Dover, when Henry was on his way to give Francis a personal interview, which that king had eagerly desired. This meeting took place near Calais, and the plain on which it was held was called "The Field of the Cloth of Gold," from the lavish costliness of this royal

pageant; at which, it was said, many of the nobles wore on their shoulders their mills, their forests, and their meadows. Amidst the gaieties of this interview such mutual distrust prevailed, that the guards on both sides were duly counted; and when the kings would visit their respective queens, each set forth at the same moment, so that neither might be the first to pass the barrier that divided their territories. At length, Francis, who was of an open and generous character, rode with three attendants to Guisnes, and entering the chamber where Henry was still in bed, told him that he was his prisoner. Henry rose and embraced him, and Francis aided him to dress. The next day, Henry, who would not be outdone in generosity, returned the compliment. No real good, however, resulted from the meeting. The two kings separated after a fortnight's rivalry in splendour; and we next find Henry in the same month (June, 1520), interchanging similar, though less magnificent civilities, with Francis' rival, Charles V., at Gravelines and Calais. Two years afterwards the emperor visited England.

Henry had been no unobservant witness of the progress of Wickliffe's opinions, which had now gained a greater hold on the minds of the people, through the writings of Luther (a Saxon monk), against the abuses of the papacy. The king himself wrote a book in reply to Luther, and, as a reward, received from the pope the title of "Defender of the Faith." The time, however, was now at hand, when, from the violence of his passions rather than from any change of theological opinion, he was to become the pope's most bitter enemy, and even to withdraw his kingdom from its thralldom to the Roman see. The part which he took was most favourable to the Reformation, which was at this time called for in all parts of Christendom; though Henry seems never to have received to any great degree the purer creed that was now preached, nor was his life ever influenced by practical religion.

He had lived eighteen years with his queen, and they had one surviving child, the Princess Mary. He now professed to have scruples of conscience as to the lawfulness of his marriage with the widow of his brother; and it must be owned that the prohibition of such unions, contained in the Levitical law, had been adopted into the code of most

Christian nations. The king's scruples were, doubtless, kept alive by an attachment he had formed to Anne Boleyn, a lady of remarkable wit and beauty in Queen Katharine's court. He applied to Rome for a divorce, and the pope (Clement VII.) had thus to choose between offending the emperor, who was Katharine's nephew, and whose power he had particular reason to fear, and on the other hand provoking a prince of Henry's violent passions to place himself at the head of the Protestants, the name by which the German reformers were soon afterwards designated, from their having protested (1529) against a decree of the empire, forbidding innovation in religion. It is because our Church is obliged to continue in a state of protestation against the errors of Rome, that she is sometimes called Protestant. But she is something more than this, unwilling as the Romanists are to admit her claim. She is a true branch of the Holy Catholic Church, of which the Creed speaks, though she be not in communion with the Church of Rome. But this by the way. To return to the divorce question. Cardinal Campeggio was sent to England for the avowed purpose of forwarding it, but with secret instructions to delay it; and the king was so little satisfied with Wolsey's conduct in the affair, that he dismissed his favourite from court, and seized his palace at York Place, since named Whitehall. Wolsey withdrew to his diocese, but was soon arrested on a charge of treason, and his deep mortification at his downfall brought on a dangerous illness. When he reached Leicester, he said to the abbot, who received him for the night, "Father abbot, I am come to lay my bones among you." Finding that his death was at hand, he spoke gratefully of the king, but added these memorable words: "Had I served my God as diligently as I have served my king, He would not have given me over in my grey hairs." With all his faults, Wolsey was a munificent patron of learning, and upright in his administration of the law. While the pope thus trifled with Henry, it happened that a clergyman, inclined to the reformation of religion, named Thomas Cranmer, expressed an opinion that the king would do well to submit to the universities of Europe the plain question, "Can a man marry his brother's widow?" This opinion was reported to Henry, who declared in his blunt way, that "the

man had got the right sow by the ear." Cranmer was sent for, and within four years became archbishop of Canterbury, and retained to the last the confidence of Henry. The king also took into his service Thomas Cromwell, who was afterwards Earl of Essex. He had been one of Wolsey's servants, and when the cardinal was disgraced, distinguished himself most honourably by his faithfulness to his fallen master.

In pursuance of Cranmer's opinions, the question was submitted to the universities, and the answer was strongly in favour of the divorce, which was accordingly pronounced by Cranmer; and Anne, who had been secretly married to Henry, was crowned June 1, 1533. The pope having threatened the king with the severest censures of the Church, unless he again received Katharine as his lawful wife, Henry was advised by Cromwell to declare himself supreme head of the English Church; and when this title was confirmed by an act of parliament (1534), it may be considered that the yoke of Roman supremacy was cast off by this kingdom.

The assumption of this title was greatly disliked by the clergy; because it seemed to imply (which it need not necessarily do) that the king is possessed of powers which belong only to persons in holy orders. Fisher, the venerable bishop of Winchester, was beheaded in the Tower for refusing to acknowledge it. His example was followed, at the same cost, by the chancellor, Sir Thomas More, distinguished for his learning and piety. His estimate of Henry's character may be seen in his reply to his son-in-law, who had seen the king walking in the garden with his arm round the chancellor's neck, and gave his father joy on the favour he was in. "Son Roper," he replied, "I have no cause to be proud thereof; for if my head would win him a castle in France, it would go."

It was now resolved to suppress the monasteries; and Cromwell, with the title of Vicar-General, was employed in this work. They were, doubtless, the strongholds of Roman error, and many shameful abuses were brought to light by the inquiries which took place. Their suppression, however, was a great loss to the poor, who had ever found help and comfort from the religious houses, which, in the lawless periods of English history, had been a refuge for

the weak, and a home for the mourners. And it should be remembered, that whatever learning existed in the middle ages, owed its preservation mainly to the fact that students were reared and leisure found for study in the cloister. The smaller monasteries were first attacked, either because they were most corrupt, or because they had been principally founded by the several orders of mendicant friars, who were the pope's most zealous supporters, or because they were the more easy prey. But the larger monasteries were soon involved in a similar ruin; although in the act of parliament for dissolving the others, it had been set forth, that they were spared as being "regular, devout, and praiseworthy." It is very possible that the monasteries, great and small, had been perverted to uses not intended by their founders; but it must ever be a matter of deep regret, that the revenues gained by their suppression were not scrupulously applied to the promotion of religion and learning.

One unobjectionable application of the funds thus seized by the civil power might have been the augmentation of the smaller benefices; the foundation of diocesan colleges for education might have been another. A measure of this latter sort was urged warmly by various bishops, but to no purpose. In vain Bishop Latimer interceded with great earnestness for the priory of Malvern, "not that it should stand to monkery, but so as to be converted to preaching, study, and prayer;" and in vain he suggested to Cromwell, "Alas! my good lord, shall we not see two or three abbeys in every shire changed to such a remedy?" Five¹ new bishoprics indeed were slenderly provided for, and two² colleges were founded; but the greater part of the revenues were bestowed on Henry's rapacious courtiers. Spoliation had well-nigh proceeded further even than this. The universities were threatened, and an act was procured by the king for their dissolution, in A.D. 1545. But God's mercy averted this blow from the Church. They were spared, it is said, through the intercession of Queen Katharine Parr.

But we must return to the narrative. The king soon became weary of Queen Anne, and his affections fixed

¹ Bristol, Gloucester, Peterborough, Chester, and Oxford.

² Christ Church, Oxford; and Trinity College, Cambridge.

themselves on Jane Seymour, a lady in her court. The gaiety of Anne's manners gave occasion for a charge against her of unfaithfulness to her husband, and she was beheaded in the Tower within little more than two years after her marriage. On the day after her execution the king married Jane Seymour, who died within a year, after giving birth to a son, who was afterwards Edward VI. Anne Boleyn had left a daughter, the Princess Elizabeth.

Henry's next wife was the Princess Anne of Cleves. He was so disappointed with her person that he could scarcely be persuaded to marry her, and soon applied for a divorce, which was granted by his obsequious clergy. Nothing can more show the subserviency of those about him to his caprice, unless it be an act of parliament which gave to his proclamations the force of law. The marriage of Anne of Cleves had been advised by Cromwell, and led to his disgrace and death. The king was highly indignant with his minister, and sent him to the Tower, where he was beheaded, 1540.

Henry immediately married the Lady Katharine Howard, who was soon discovered to be a woman of abandoned character, and was executed, with several persons concerned in her guilt. His last wife was Katharine Parr, who was more than once in great danger from her attachment to the reformation of religion; but by her prudence was enabled to lull the irritation of her husband, whom she survived.

Though Henry had severed his kingdom from the Roman Church, it was not his intention that his subjects should embrace the reformed opinions farther than they were held by himself. At the beginning of his opposition to Rome, he had authorized the translation of the Bible, and the publication of a book by the bishops, called the "Institute of a Christian Man." (1537.) At a later period, the use of the Scriptures was restricted, and a book less unfavourable to Rome was published, called the "Erudition of a Christian." An act was also passed (1539), requiring the assent of all persons to six articles which still embodied the principal Roman errors. These were:—*transubstantiation*, or the change of the substance of the bread and wine, in the Holy Eucharist, into the corporeal substance of our Lord;

the denial of the cup to the laity; the profitableness of private masses; the enforcement of confession to a priest; the unlawfulness of marriage in a priest; the obligation of vows of celibacy. This act was called "The Bloody Statute," and "The Whip with Six Strings," from the vast number of executions which it occasioned. Reformers were burnt for refusing assent to these articles; while Romanists suffered for denying the king's supremacy.

It was not until almost the end of his reign that the king would sanction a return to the English language in the public service of the Church. Two Primers (or first books) had indeed been set forth, one by William Marshall, in A.D. 1535, and another by Thomas Hilsey, bishop of Rochester, in A.D. 1539, the latter of which had received Cromwell's sanction. But these were rather indications of a public want, devotions for private use, and awkward adaptations of old offices, than authoritative documents for the use of the Church. But in 1545, what was called King Henry the Eighth's Primer was published by royal authority. In the preface the king says, "We have set out and given to our subjects a determinate form of prayer in our own mother tongue, to the intent that such as are ignorant of any strange or foreign speech, may have what to pray in their own acquainted and familiar language." And again, "We have judged it to be of no small force for the avoiding of strife and contention, to have one uniform manner or course of praying throughout all our dominions." This Primer contained in English the Creed, Lord's Prayer, and Ten Commandments, together with prayers, suffrages, hymns, and select passages of Scripture, for morning and evening devotion. It gave also in English the Litany,—nearly the same as that now in use,—to be said alternately by the priest and the people. It embraced also other prayers, rather suited for private than for public use, but no form in English for the celebration of the Holy Eucharist. The king insisted to the last on retaining the Romish expression of that doctrine, and would not allow the office relating to it to be meddled with. The task of restoring the cup to the laity, and preparing men's minds for an intelligent reception of the blessing conveyed in that sacrament, was reserved for the purer hands of his successor.

As the king advanced in years, he suffered most severely from an ulcer in his thigh; he had become so unwieldy in person that machines were invented to move him; his temper, never good, now grew even ferocious; and his caprice and cruelty were such that even his attendants feared to approach him. He seemed to live for severity. The fatal axe in the Tower was constantly employed, and the fires in Smithfield blazed with innocent victims. The most distinguished of these was Anne Askew, who had been put to the torture by the Chancellor Wriottesley with his own hands, and died with remarkable faith and devotion. The last victim of Henry's tyranny was the accomplished Earl of Surrey, who was beheaded in the Tower, on the most slender and ill-supported charges. His father, the Duke of Norfolk, escaped a similar fate only by the death of Henry on the night before he had been ordered for execution. The king breathed his last Jan. 1547, and was succeeded by Prince Edward, his only son.

Henry was never unpopular with his subjects. His measures, indeed, occasioned at times some partial insurrections, the principal of which (called the Pilgrimage of Grace) was in the year 1536; but they were put down without difficulty. The people remembered the early magnificence of his reign; and, among all his vices, he possessed that blunt courtesy and openness of hand, which are so captivating in persons of his exalted rank.

CHAPTER XXVI.

EDWARD VI.

*Born at Hampton Court. • Buried in Westminster Abbey.
Reigned 6 years. From A.D. 1547 to A.D. 1553.*

Archbishop of Canterbury.

Thomas Cranmer, A.D. 1533—1555.

EDWARD was little more than nine years old when he became king. He had been trained in the principles of those who had sought and found, amid the additions of Romanism, the elements of the pure and primitive faith. His intelligence was beyond his years, and his early piety was a pattern to all around him. When the three swords were (as was usual) carried before him at his coronation, he said, "There is yet one wanting," and called for a Bible. "For," said he, "that is the sword of the Spirit, without which we are nothing." His uncle, who became Duke of Somerset, and was declared Protector, was a firm friend to the Reformation, which was now zealously promoted. Englishmen cannot be sufficiently thankful that this great religious movement was, under the Divine Providence, guided by a prelate of Cranmer's moderation and judgment. In Germany and Scotland it was, to a great degree, conducted by persons whom their zeal against popery made blind to the apostolic origin of many established practices. Thus excesses were committed by the mobs in many places; churches were profaned and mutilated, and wild and extravagant doctrines were preached. In England, by God's blessing, a milder spirit pervaded all the changes that were made; and it was a great advantage that these changes were made by the authorities in Church and State, not by the zeal of individuals nor by the lawlessness of mobs. The principle on which changes were made was not a mere antipathy to Rome, but a desire to return to Scripture and primitive usage. Thus the use of a prescribed form for public worship was retained, together with the apostolic institution of Episcopacy, while the comparatively modern corruptions of Romanism were removed. The principal of

these were, the practice of praying in an unknown tongue; the withholding the Bible from general use; the enforced celibacy of the clergy; the doctrine called transubstantiation, which we have already explained; the denial of the cup to the laity; the undue honour paid to saints and images; the worship paid to the Virgin Mary; and the doctrine of purgatory, with the notion connected with it, that remission can be purchased from the pope in favour of ourselves or others. In the course of this reign, and chiefly under the influence of Cranmer, and Ridley, bishop of London, the Liturgy³ was cleansed from these errors, and brought into nearly its present form.

In the first year of King Edward's reign, Dec. 1547, it was ordered that the Lord's Supper should be distributed to the people, and that the cup in particular should be no longer withheld from them. A commission was issued about the same time to draw up an Office for the Holy Eucharist. This was completed on the 8th of March, 1548, and enjoined to be used forthwith. A considerable portion of it, however, was still in Latin. A new commission, therefore, was soon issued (chiefly to the same divines) directing them to prepare a complete collection of Divine Offices for public worship. The members of it met at Windsor in May, 1548, and drew up a Book of Common Prayer and Administration of the Sacraments, &c., which was approved by the Church in Convocation, and enjoined by act of parliament in the ensuing January, "to be used from the feast of Whit-Sunday, 1549." The principles on which it was compiled were, a desire to retain whatever was sanctioned by ancient usage, (provided it did not give occasion to superstition,) and an avoidance of novelty as such. This Prayer Book is substantially the same as that now in use. Modifications of it were made in⁴ 1552, some of which seem scarcely to have been required; but several

³ The word Liturgy, in the language of the ancient Church, was used to denote the celebration of the Holy Eucharist. By a natural transition of meaning, it next signified the Office, or Form of Words, in which it was celebrated. Hence it became gradually used to denote the Church's Offices in general, viz. the whole Prayer Book.

⁴ The two editions of the Prayer Book set forth in 1549 and 1552, are called respectively the First and Second Books of King Edward the Sixth. It is worth noticing that the Second Book was never authorized by Convocation.

of these were rejected on reconsideration of the subject in later reigns.

A Book for Consecrating and Ordaining Bishops, Priests, and Deacons was drawn up in 1550.

It would be foreign to our purpose to enter more minutely upon the contents of the Prayer Book, its relation to the forms of prayer used in other Churches, and in the Church of England itself before the Reformation, or the exact nature of the changes introduced into it at the successive revisions, which will be noticed in their proper place⁵.

To secure soberness of speculation on the part of the clergy, forty-two Articles of Religion were agreed upon, in A.D. 1552, which were almost the same with the present Thirty-nine Articles of our Church. To ensure soundness in the practical teaching given to the people, and to remedy, as far as might be, the existing want of persons able to preach, homilies or sermons were drawn up, A.D. 1547, to be read in churches on Sundays and Holy-days. All this was done by the Church itself, under the direction of Cranmer, by the assistance of the most eminent divines of the day, with the sanction and approval of Convocation. The Church proved its vitality by existing through such troublous times, and by its activity in reforming its abuses. The civil power stepped in to aid it, and all the measures which it carried through received external confirmation from the king and the three estates⁶ of the realm in parliament. These changes were not made without occasioning some discontent and risings of the peasantry, who suffered severely from the suppression of monasteries; but the Protector, with all his ambition, was humane and gentle, and succeeded in quieting the excitement of the people.

Somerset was very desirous of obtaining for his nephew the hand of the young Queen of Scots, and led an army into Scotland to enforce his demand. This rough method of wooing was not very likely to succeed; and though he

⁵ The student is referred to Palmer's "*Origines Liturgicæ*," and Wheatly "*On the Common Prayer*;" but a plain and popular account of this interesting subject may be found in Archdeacon Berens' "*History of the Prayer Book*," published by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge.

⁶ The three estates are, the Lords Spiritual, the Lords Temporal, and the Commons.

overthrew the Scots with great loss at Pinkie, near Edinburgh, the young queen was sent to France to be educated, and was there married to the dauphin.

The Protector's brother had been made high admiral, with the title of Lord Seymour. He had also married Queen Katharine Parr, but was jealous of Somerset, and tried to undermine his power. When his aim became too plain, he was tried and executed by his brother's order on a charge of treason. The influence, however, of the Protector began to decline. His concessions to the people had displeased the nobles; and his ambition led him to grasp at more power than any subject had enjoyed. He had also begun to build the palace in the Strand, which is still called Somerset House, by means which cannot be justified. His chief enemy was Dudley, who became Duke of Northumberland, and by his influence he was forced to give up his office, and was severely fined. Having afterwards unguardedly used some violent words, he was tried for high treason, and beheaded in the Tower, to the great grief of the people.

The health of the young king now rapidly declined, and Northumberland induced him to alter the succession to the throne, with a view to the aggrandizement of his own family. The Ladies Mary and Elizabeth had both been named in their father's will to succeed after their brother, but had previously been declared illegitimate by act of parliament; and as Mary was firmly attached to the Church of Rome, the young king was easily worked upon to take advantage of that act, and appoint a successor from the family of his aunt the Queen of France by the Duke of Suffolk. The person thus appointed was the Lady Jane Grey, whom Northumberland had contrived to marry to his son, Lord Guildford Dudley. The king required his councillors to sign the devise in Lady Jane's favour; and Cranmer, among the rest, reluctantly put his hand to it. Edward breathed his last July 6, 1553. Shortly before his death, he had been so moved by a sermon of Bishop Ridley on the duty of providing for the poor, that he sent for him, and with tears desired his advice in the fulfilment of that duty. The result of that advice was the foundation of Christ's Hospital, for the education of poor children; St. Thomas's and St. Bartholomew's, for the relief of the sick; and Bridewell, for the correction of the vicious.

Various other schools were founded at the suggestion of Edward VI., or by the influence of those about him. His example influenced Queen Elizabeth; and corporate bodies and private individuals, during his reign and the two or three reigns succeeding it, became founders of various places of education. Of the public schools, Eton, a royal foundation, had risen in Henry VI.'s time. Winchester has been already noticed. Each of these had a college at one of the universities intimately connected with it. Two institutions similar to these in having a peculiar college allotted to them at a university, were established after the Reformation began; these were Westminster School, founded by Queen Elizabeth in 1560, and endowed with studentships at Christ Church, Oxford; and Merchant Taylors' school, by a London "Guild or Company" in 1561, to which Sir Thomas White attached nearly all the fellowships of St. John's, Oxford, which he founded about the same time. Sir Thomas Pope⁷ founded Trinity college, Oxford, in 1554. Harrow school was founded by John Lyon in 1560. Rugby school by Laurence Sheriffe in 1567. The schools at Birmingham, Bury St. Edmunds, Norwich, Sherborne, and Shrewsbury, are attributable to Edward VI. The Charterhouse was established on the site of a suppressed Carthusian monastery by Thomas Sutton in 1611. Wadham and Pembroke colleges, Oxford, were founded early in the 17th century.

Now, if the fact of these foundations evidenced nothing else, it would at least show that the Church, which was now being purified, considered learning her best human auxiliary. The Greek language was no longer looked upon with mistrust, or the Hebrew almost considered an heretical study, as was the case when Dean Colet founded St. Paul's school, and committed it to the care of the Mer-

⁷ Sir Thomas Pope was one of King Henry the Eighth's visitors of abbeys. In the division of the spoil he had obtained, on easy terms, a grant from the Crown of a small college at Oxford, which had been founded by the Bishop and Prior of Durham, for a nursery to their monastery. It is probable that he felt some compunction at having Church property in his possession; accordingly, he founded a new college on the same site, and endowed it with the same lands, with the addition of various manors of his own. His acts were an embodiment of the feeling which, not many years after, made Sir Henry Spelman write his work, called, "Churches not to be violated."

cers' Company, in 1510. "Persons to teach in good and cleane Latin literature, and also in Greeke, yf such might be gotten," were sought for, and in matters of religion they were to teach, "yf neede be, the Catechisme and instrucccons of the Articles of the Faith and the Ten Commandements in Latine."

We scarcely know how much we are indebted to the youthful prince, who was the first to turn men's minds from spoliation of churches and colleges to the endowment of educational institutions. His dying prayer seems thus to have had, in some sort, an accomplishment: "O Lord God, deliver this realm from papistry, and maintain thy true religion, that I and my people may praise thy name, for Jesus Christ's sake."

CHAPTER XXVII.

MARY.

*Born at Greenwich. Buried at Westminster. Reigned
5 years. From A.D. 1553 to A.D. 1558.*

Archbishops of Canterbury.

Thomas Cranmer, A.D. 1533—1555.

Reginald Pole, A.D. 1555—1558.

THE attempt of Northumberland to secure the crown for his daughter-in-law was utterly unsuccessful. The Lady Jane was indeed proclaimed, and conducted to the Tower (as was usual) with a view to her coronation. But the sovereignty of "Queen Jane," as she is styled in public documents of the period, only lasted thirteen days, from July the 6th to July the 19th, 1553. The true principle of succession was now too well established in public opinion to be easily set aside, and the right of Mary was so universally acknowledged, that she entered London without opposition. Northumberland was beheaded, after showing himself as abject in adversity as he had been insolent in prosperity. Jane and her husband (of whom neither was more than seventeen) were imprisoned, but their lives were spared for about a year. Upon an insurrection, which

was headed by Sir Thomas Wyatt, the warrant was issued for their execution. Lord Guildford suffered first; and Jane saw from a window her husband's headless trunk, as it was carried back in a cart. She died with an admirable meekness and piety; and it may be believed that a spirit, of which no earthly crown was worthy, was thus summoned to a far more glorious inheritance. Ascham, who was tutor to Elizabeth, has related an anecdote of this young lady, which shows her early piety and thoughtfulness. Going one day to the residence of her family, he found her studying Plato on the immortality of the soul, when the rest of the family were hunting in the park. When he expressed surprise that she did not join the others in their pleasure, she smiled and said, "I fancy all their sport is a shadow to the pleasure which I find in Plato. Alas! good folks, they little know what true pleasure is." When her dignity was first announced to her, she burst into tears, and expressed her sense of unfitness for it. She could scarcely be prevailed on to accept the office which her relatives forced upon her, and at last acknowledged her fault in having given way to their entreaty.

This execution betokened the stern and cruel disposition which will ever be assigned to Mary in English history. She was, indeed, sincerely devout, and possessed many high and noble qualities; nor must we forget the reason she had to view the Reformation with dislike, from all the misery of which it had been made the instrument to her mother Queen Katharine and herself. With every allowance, however, her character must be viewed as an instance of the dreadful effects of that bigotry and intolerance, which have disgraced the Roman Church far more than any other in Christendom.

Her first act had been to discharge the prisoners confined in the Tower during the late reign, among whom was the old Duke of Norfolk, who had languished there, with his unexecuted sentence hanging over him, ever since the death of Henry VIII. Edward Courtenay was released at the same time. This young nobleman was great grandson of Edward IV., and, like his father and grandfather, was most unfortunate. Henry Courtenay, his father, was beheaded in 1538 by Henry VIII., for correspondence with

Cardinal Pole; his grandfather, William Courtenay, earl of Devon, the husband of Katharine, Edward V.'s sister, was attainted by Henry VII. He himself had passed his youth in confinement, a victim to his proximity to the crown. After his release, he acquired a degree of grace and accomplishment, which made him an ornament to the court. It is even said that he might have married Mary, if he had not neglected her for Elizabeth her sister. He died, however, at Padua, unmarried, in 1556, and thus the last descendant of the house of York, who was likely to endanger the heir of Henry VII., was removed.

At the same time also were released Gardiner and Bonner, bishops of Winchester and London. These became Mary's chief advisers and agents, and by their influence, she at once subjected her sister Elizabeth to harsh treatment, and compelled her to conform to the ritual of the Roman Church, which was now every where re-established. Cranmer and Ridley, with Latimer and Hooper, the bishops of Worcester and Gloucester, were committed to prison; and Cardinal Pole, a relative of the queen, was appointed by the pope his legate in England. He was afterwards consecrated archbishop of Canterbury.

Her next care was the settlement of her marriage, and, contrary to the advice even of Gardiner, her chancellor, she determined to marry Philip, prince of Spain, whose bigotry to the Roman see was well known. This choice was very unwelcome to the nation, and the English admiral is said to have fired on the Spanish fleet, though Philip was on board, because its topsails were not lowered to the ships of this nation, which even then began to regard herself as mistress of the sea. The haughtiness of Philip made him always unpopular in England, and the people attributed to his influence (perhaps more than was just) the cruelties that were practised to restore the papal system. Mary doated on her husband, though he treated her very distantly, and ere long retired to his own dominions.

The fires of Smithfield were soon rekindled for those who would not acknowledge the monstrous doctrine of transubstantiation. The first who suffered was Rogers, a married priest. He was brutally insulted by Gardiner and Bonner, and was denied an interview with his wife

and children, who, however, met him as he was led to the stake. He suffered with great constancy, as was invariably the case with the victims in these persecutions; nor did the married clergy show less willingness to suffer for conscience' sake, than those who were single. Hooper was burnt at Gloucester, in his own diocese. The names of Saunders, Taylor, Bradford, and Philpot, are among the most memorable of those who died for their religion in this reign, in which it is computed that about 300 persons were burnt, many of them women and children.

The most memorable, however, of the martyrs, from their character and station, were Cranmer, Ridley, and Latimer. They were all sent to Oxford, where they were required to dispute with a commission on the subject of the Eucharist. The behaviour of the aged Latimer was marked by the quaint and homely simplicity for which he was distinguished, while Cranmer and Ridley bore themselves with great dignity and firmness. Ridley and Latimer were first burnt in the space before Balliol college^s. 'The latter exclaimed at the stake: "Be of good courage, Master Ridley! we shall this day, by God's grace, light in England such a candle as I trust shall never be put out."

The case of Cranmer is even more touching. He was promised his life if he would recant, and it is certain that he did sign some form of recantation. When, however, he was brought to St. Mary's church to acknowledge his error publicly, he knelt down, and with many tears bewailed his sin in thus yielding through human frailness. At the stake, he stedfastly held in the flames the hand which had signed the paper, exclaiming, "This hand hath offended; this unworthy right hand!"

The effect of all these executions (and of none more than the martyrdom of Cranmer) was to alienate the people from Rome. In the death of Cranmer, who had borne his elevation with great meekness, the malice and falseness of the papists were especially seen.

The only other event of much note in this reign was the loss of Calais, in a war in which Mary had been induced

^s A memorial of the three martyrs has lately been erected near the spot:

to engage by her husband. She was deeply afflicted at this loss, and declared that at her death the name of Calais would be found engraven on her heart. Her health had never been strong, and she was constitutionally melancholy. Soon after her accession she had been afflicted with dropsy, and died of that complaint, Nov. 17, 1558; nor was her death much regretted even by the Romanists.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

ELIZABETH.

Born at Greenwich. Buried at Westminster. Reigned 45 years. From A.D. 1558 to A.D. 1603.

Archbishops of Canterbury.

Matthew Parker, A.D. 1559—1575.

Edmund Grindal, A.D. 1575—1583.

John Whitgift, A.D. 1583—1604.

ELIZABETH was at Hatfield, in Hertfordshire, at the time of her sister's death. She had often been in great danger during the late reign, and was once even committed to the Tower. Her prudence led her to live in retirement, and employ herself in cultivating a mind which was naturally highly gifted. She learnt wisdom in the school of adversity. When the news of her accession was brought her, she fell on her knees, saying, "It is the Lord's doing, and it is marvellous in our eyes." And on entering the Tower, she again gave thanks to God for the change in her condition, since the time when she was taken there as a prisoner.

Her accession was hailed with joy by the whole nation; especially as she was known to be attached to the reformation of religion, which she took measures again to set on foot. Her chief adviser was the great statesman Sir William Cecil, whom she afterwards made Lord Burleigh.

One of the first works which Elizabeth undertook was the issuing a commission to certain learned men to make a review of King Edward's Prayer Books, and to frame from them both a book for the use of the Church of England.

The later book of King Edward was chosen as the basis of the book now adopted; but some important alterations were made in it, especially in reference to the omission of a remarkable petition in the Litany, "to be delivered from the Bishop of Rome and his detestable enormities," and the correction of the sentences used in the delivery of the Holy Eucharist to communicants, so as to bring them nearer to the ancient form, and remind the recipient more forcibly "of the dignity of that sacrament."

A bill for restoring the Prayer Book, with these alterations, was brought into the House of Commons, and passed without much opposition. It met with a good deal of resistance in the House of Lords; but was at length passed under the title of "An Act for the Uniformity of Common Prayer and Service in the Church, and Administration of the Sacraments," and was to come into operation on the day of St. John the Baptist, June 24th, then ensuing.

This Act had been preceded by others—some of them of a very questionable character—as tending to impoverish the remaining resources of the Church, and subject her too completely to the civil power. But the re-enactment of the royal supremacy, and the Act for Uniformity, were the tests by which the sincerity of the adherents to the papal party was to be tried. The Arch^bishop of Canterbury, Pole, had died within a few hours of Queen Mary. Some of the other bishoprics were vacant. Of the actual occupants of English and Welsh⁹ sees at the time, only one, Kitchen, bishop of Llandaff, would conform. The rest, together with all the clergy who followed their example, were deprived of their sees. The emperor and other foreign princes interceded for them in vain, "That they might be restored to their offices and dignities, or that they might at least be allowed some churches in cities and great towns." But the queen replied, that "there was no reason for such an indulgence; for there was no new faith propagated in England; no religion set up but that which was commanded by our Saviour, practised by the primitive Church, and unanimously approved by the Fathers of the best antiquity."

The deprived bishops, however, could not see the pro-

⁹ The bishops of the Irish Church generally conformed
[H. S. 1.]

priety of this argument, and refused to comply. It became necessary, therefore, to fill the places which had become void by death or deprivation. It was not thought desirable to resort to the Irish bishops, and at length four English bishops were found to officiate at the consecration of Matthew Parker as archbishop of Canterbury. Their names were William Barlow, late bishop of Bath and Wells, now elect of Chichester; John Scory, late bishop of Chichester, now elect of Hereford; Miles Coverdale, late bishop of Exeter; and John Hodgskins, suffragan bishop of Bedford. None of the solemnities essential to the occasion appear to have been omitted, and a full record of the consecration has been preserved¹⁰. Thus by God's mercy, our chain of bishops was kept unbroken, even when it seemed most likely to fail. Parker and his colleagues immediately proceeded to lay their hands on other faithful men, and to commit to them the trust they had themselves received.

A Second Book of Homilies which had been prepared, or nearly so, before the death of Edward VI., was now revised and finished by Parker and the other bishops. Jewel, by this time bishop of Salisbury, is supposed to have had the chief hand in its composition. Not long afterwards the Forty-two Articles, agreed upon in 1552, were examined, and assented to by the queen, under the title of "Thirty-nine Articles agreed upon by the archbishops and bishops of both provinces, and the whole clergy, in the convocation holden at London in the year 1562, for avoiding diversities of opinion, and for the establishing of consent touching true religion." These Articles were again revised, and some small alterations were made in them, in the year 1571. A more perfect translation of the Holy Scriptures was the chief remaining work in the way of reformation which marked the reign of Elizabeth. Many were to be found in that day who desired her to do more. During the reign of Mary, several of

¹⁰ An absurd story was invented by the papists, forty years afterwards, to the effect that Parker's consecration was not made by "laying on of hands" by bishops, but was merely a civil ceremony, which took place at the Nag's Head Tavern in Cheapside. But it has been fully refuted by the existence of authentic accounts, which prove that the consecration took place in due form at Lambeth.

those who were opposed to the restoration of Romanism had fled to Switzerland and Germany, and there imbibed the views of the foreign reformers, who in their zeal against whatever resembled Romanism, no matter how innocent it was, objected to many rites and usages which the Church of England had retained. On the return of these persons to England, they were clamorous for more extensive changes than Cranmer and those who acted with him had made; and it required much firmness and judgment on the part of Elizabeth and her advisers to preserve the mild and moderate character of the English Church. As long as Parker lived she possessed a sagacious and uncompromising counsellor on ecclesiastical matters. But his successor, Grindal, was a favourer of "prophesyings," and other strange and undisciplined exercises of ministerial functions. Things assumed a better appearance in this respect under Archbishop Whitgift—at least, irregularities which struck at the very root of the episcopal office did not obtain episcopal sanction. The party which held views tending rather towards the German than the Roman direction—that is, which allowed too much scope to private judgment, rather than too little, as Rome did—were called generally Puritans¹. But this name embraced a variety of forms of dissent; such as Anabaptists, Brownists or Independents, Sabbatarians, or even Pantheists. The country swarmed with small tracts and pamphlets, which carried in their very titles evidence of their defamatory and irregular character. Among these were "Martin Marprelate" and "A Dialogue setting forth the tyrannical dealing of the Bishops against God's children." And Cartwright, a deposed Professor of Divinity at Cambridge, had endeavoured to frame their theology and government into a system.

¹ The dissenters of Elizabeth's day were called *Nonconformists*, because they declined to comply with the liturgy, rites, and ceremonies of the Church;—and *Puritans*, because they alleged that by the further reforms for which they contended, religion would be made more pure and spiritual.

The term *Recusant*, also, was sometimes used to denote all dissenters, whether popish or puritan; but it is generally applied to the papists, who refused to acknowledge the royal supremacy, or partake of the Holy Communion in parish churches.

All this was sadly perplexing at the time ; but we shall see that the confusions of this kind during Elizabeth's reign were but the first-fruits of that narrow and self-sufficient temper which was to lead to greater evils by-and-by. Much of the division in religious opinions which still exists in England may trace its origin to this period.

As for the Romanists in England, they seem at first to have acquiesced in the reforms which Elizabeth brought in. They might well have been unsettled by the decrees of the Council of Trent, which pretended to be an Œcumenical² Council, holden for the purpose of settling the disputes in the Christian world, and which in no indirect terms alluded to the movement which was going on in England ; but they did not cease to attend the authorized services of the English Church till the year 1570, when the queen was excommunicated by the pope. This is a fact which it is well to bear in mind.

The person of Elizabeth was well formed, and her countenance was fair and noble. She was, however, far surpassed in personal appearance by Mary Queen of Scots, who was at this time dauphiness, and shortly became Queen of France ; and Elizabeth, in spite of her masculine understanding, was weak enough to be mortified at being thus outshone by her relative, who was one of the most beautiful and accomplished women of the age.

The Queen of Scots was next to Elizabeth in succession to the English crown, and being warmly attached to the Roman Church, was regarded by the more bigoted papists as entitled to dispossess Elizabeth, who was disqualified in their opinion by her birth and religious views. Unhappily, Mary and her husband (Francis II.) assumed the royal arms of England ; and thus a rivalry arose between the two queens, in which Elizabeth's just indignation at this invasion of her right was sharpened by a less worthy jealousy of Mary's personal advantages.

The love of admiration, which was shared by this great queen with the weakest of her sex, appeared not only in

² An Œcumenical Council (derived from a Greek word signifying "the inhabited world"), is one which represents all the Christian world. The Council of Trent, therefore, was not œcumenical, for the British and Eastern Churches were not represented in it. It sat at intervals from A.D. 1545 to 1563.

her bearing towards Mary, and her love of dress and flattery, but also in the manner in which she behaved towards the various suitors who aspired to her hand. Among these was Philip of Spain, her sister's widower, to whom she sent a civil refusal, which he seems to have deeply resented. When urged by her parliament to marry, Elizabeth had replied that she was espoused to her kingdom, and wished for no fairer remembrance than the inscription on her tomb, "Here lies Elizabeth, who lived and died a virgin queen." She was, however, greatly caught by personal beauty in the other sex; and while (as in the case of Lord Burleigh, Sir Francis Walsingham, and Sir Nicholas Bacon,) she chose her ministers for sterling wisdom, she was greatly influenced in the choice of her more personal attendants by the glitter of outward accomplishment. The person who enjoyed the greatest share of her favour for a long course of years, was Lord Robert Dudley, son of the Duke of Northumberland, who was beheaded in the late reign. He was made Earl of Leicester, and was the handsomest noble in the English court, but by no means a person of unblemished character. The favour and even caresses which Elizabeth bestowed on him, excited his hope of an union, which perhaps she never seriously contemplated. At a later period of her reign she almost pledged herself to the Duke of Anjou, many years her junior; but was persuaded to overcome the feeling which she could not at that time have indulged to the happiness of herself or her kingdom. The weakness with which she courted admiration is amusingly seen in her conduct, when Sir James Melvill was in her court on an embassy from Queen Mary. She danced in his presence, and pressed him to say whether she or the Queen of Scots danced best, and which of them he thought the fairest. He replied that his queen did not dance "so high and disposedly" as Elizabeth; and that Elizabeth was the fairest queen in England, and Mary the fairest queen in Scotland.

On the early death of Francis II., his widow was entreated by her subjects to return to her own kingdom. Elizabeth at first refused to ensure her a safe passage, unless she would renounce her title as Queen of England. She was, however, saluted by the English fleet, when she fell in with it on her way. In Scotland she found the

people so bitterly opposed to any thing resembling popery, that it was with difficulty she could secure the performance of its rites in her own chapel; and her measures and character were regarded with much suspicion. After many discussions about her marriage, in which Elizabeth did not act with candour or kindness, she was united to Henry Darnley, a relative of both queens, whose only other recommendation was his personal beauty. They lived unhappily, and Darnley's jealousy was so raised by the favour which she showed to one Rizzio, a musician, that he conducted several nobles to Mary's private apartments at Holyrood, and assisted them in putting him to death almost in her sight. She was then likely to become a mother, and was soon delivered of a son. The news of that event renewed the jealousy of Elizabeth, who, on hearing of it, gave vent to her feelings by saying, "The Queen of Scots has a fair boy, while I am a barren stock."

A tragedy now took place in Scotland, in which Mary's fair fame must be for ever implicated. She had removed her husband, who was indisposed, to a lone house, which was blown up a few hours after she had herself left it: and the unfortunate prince was found dead in the fields at a little distance. Mary shortly afterwards gave her hand to the Lord Bothwell, of whose share in the murder of Darnley there can be no doubt. The Scottish nobles were roused to action by this dreadful event. Bothwell was forced to fly the kingdom, and Mary was confined in Loch-Leven castle; while her son was proclaimed James VI., under the regency of the Earl of Murray, a natural son of his grandfather. The queen escaped from Loch-Leven, but was defeated at Langside, and resolved to cross the borders, and place herself in Elizabeth's hands. The English council determined that she should be detained; an injustice, which this conduct of Mary, however culpable, could not excuse; and they gained her reluctant consent to an examination into the charges against her, which took place at York. The proofs of her guilt were such, that Elizabeth refused to see her, and she was removed to Tutbury, a seat of Lord Shrewsbury. Here she had communication with the papists in the north, and a rising took place under the Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland, the result of which was that Northumber-

land lost his head on the scaffold, and Westmoreland fled to the continent. A plot was then formed for Mary's marriage with the Duke of Norfolk, who was tempted by this prospect to involve himself in practices, for which he was at last tried and beheaded in the Tower.

There can be no doubt that a conspiracy, in which the court of France was involved, had been formed by the Pope and the King of Spain for the destruction of Elizabeth, the elevation of Mary to the throne, the undoing of all that had been done to purify the faith in England, and the checking of similar movements on the continent. A most atrocious massacre of the Huguenots³, or French Protestants, took place at Paris on the eve of St. Bartholomew, 1572. They were excommunicated persons, it was urged, and might be lawfully put to death. The Queen of England had been excommunicated also, and many Romanists, therefore, believed it would be a meritorious act to murder her. Monks of the order of the Jesuits (which was established in this century) arrived in England, and under their influence plots were laid against the queen. The most serious of these was headed by Anthony Babington and six other young men of gentle birth; of whose guilty purpose there can be little doubt that Mary was aware. These conspiracies were detected by the sagacity of Walsingham, and drew forth the affection of the people for their glorious queen. When she appeared in public, they would fall on their knees and invoke blessings on her head. It was at length determined to put Mary on her trial for encouraging these treasons, and the unhappy queen was found guilty by a commission, before which she appeared at Fotheringay, in Northamptonshire, 1586. In no act of her life did Elizabeth show so much hesitation, and (it is to be feared) so much duplicity, as in signing the warrant for Mary's execution. The warrant was at length issued, and Mary was beheaded in the hall of Fotheringay Castle.

The scaffold was covered with black. Mary appeared in

³ *Huguenots*. The derivation of this word has been much disputed. The most rational one is that which makes it come from the word *eignots*, confederates, an appellation assumed by the Swiss leaguers at the beginning of the 16th century. About the year 1560 the term *Huguenots* began to be applied to the French Protestants or leaguers for religion's sake.

a rich dress of silk and velvet, with a long veil on her head, and a crucifix in her hand. The executioners kneeled down and asked her forgiveness. She said she forgave them and all who were concerned in her death. Her behaviour in these trying scenes was marked not only by much dignity and firmness, but also by many indications of sincere piety; and though her memory must ever be loaded with much that is doubtful, yet the judgment of posterity on the treatment which she met with has not been favourable to Elizabeth. The King of Scots made an effort to save his mother, and sent an angry remonstrance after her death: but his threats were disregarded, and his anger was easily allayed. Elizabeth threw the blame on Davison her secretary, whom she imprisoned on a charge of acting without authority, and fined so severely that he was reduced to beggary.

During a great part of this reign a sanguinary struggle against the King of Spain had been going on in the Netherlands, which ended in the independence of the Dutch. Elizabeth assisted them with her troops under the Earl of Leicester, who showed very little ability for his office. In the course of these wars the young Sir Philip Sidney received his mortal wound. He was the flower of the English court, and in mind as well as person seemed to realize the idea of chivalrous and unblemished beauty. When carried from the field, he asked for water; but seeing a wounded soldier look wistfully at it, as he raised it to his lips, he handed it to him, saying, "Thy necessity is greater than mine."

To avenge himself on Elizabeth for thus aiding his revolted subjects, and also for the execution of Mary, the King of Spain prepared a fleet for the invasion of England, which he named the Invincible Armada. The wealth of Spain and the Indies was exhausted in preparing it; and the approaching struggle was regarded with the deepest interest by the whole of Christendom. The spirit of Elizabeth rose with the trying occasion. Troops were enlisted, and ships supplied by the sea-ports, the command of which was entrusted to Lord Howard of Effingham, assisted by the distinguished seamen, Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher. A camp was formed at Tilbury, and Elizabeth rode along the lines, animating the soldiers with her

cheering language. She told them, that though she had but the body of a feeble woman, she had the heart of an English king, and would herself bear arms, rather than see her realm dishonoured by any prince in Europe.

It pleased God to scatter this vain-glorious Armada by a storm, in which many ships were lost; and the rest were chased by the English fleet, even to the Northern seas. A small remnant only returned to Spain. The queen gave thanks in St. Paul's for the deliverance of her kingdom from this danger; and the English afterwards attacked the Spanish coasts. The city of Cádiz was taken and burnt by an armament, in which the Earl of Essex and Sir Walter Raleigh bore command. The latter had at one time been much noticed by the queen, and led an expedition to South America, of which he published a remarkable account.

On Leicester's death, the Earl of Essex succeeded to his place in Elizabeth's affections. He was young, popular, and high-spirited; and ventured to behave with greater liberty towards the queen than any other had presumed to take. Having once turned his back on her in contempt, Elizabeth gave him a box on the ear; on which he laid his hand on his sword, and swore he would not have borne such usage from her father. Her affection soon disposed her to forgiveness, and she entrusted him with the government of Ireland, where a rebellion had broken out under the Earl of Tyrone. The weakness of his conduct exposed him to Elizabeth's censure, and she was further displeased when he returned from his government and appeared at court without her permission. Mortified by his reception, he was persuaded to head a foolish insurrection in the streets of London, for which he was committed to the Tower and condemned to death. The mind of Elizabeth long wavered between her lingering affection and just indignation. It has been said that she had given him a ring, to be sent to her whenever he needed her protection; and that the earl entrusted this token to the Countess of Nottingham, who was secretly his enemy, and never delivered it to the queen. Elizabeth was indignant at his neglecting to send the ring, and signed the warrant for his execution. Whatever truth there be in this account, it is certain that the queen fell into a deep melancholy after the death of Essex, and her powers of mind and body gave way. She lay for

ten days on the ground supported by cushions, and died in the 70th year of her age, A.D. 1603, after indicating (as was said) that the King of Scots was to be her successor.

Like all the sovereigns of the Tudor family, she ruled both court and kingdom with a sway little less arbitrary than the rule of Eastern despots. The power of the nobles had been much broken in the wars of the Roses, and the influence of the Commons had not yet reached its full growth. Her reign is however one of the most glorious periods of English history. Commerce and agriculture revived under her wise enactments, and towards the close of her reign the law for the maintenance of the poor was passed, which must ever be viewed as a great national provision for the destitute and afflicted. The literature of England blazed forth with unexampled brightness during this and the early part of the next reign. Shakspeare, Ben Jonson, Massinger, Beaumont and Fletcher, Ford, Webster, Sir Philip Sidney, and Edmund Spenser, among our poets; Jewel and Hooker among our divines; Ascham among our scholars; John Stow among our antiquaries; and Lord Bacon among our philosophers, are still names ever to be held in honour. The domestic architecture also of England never flourished so much as in the reign of Elizabeth. She was accustomed to make royal progresses in all parts of her dominions, which served greatly to preserve her popularity; and on these journeys she visited those stately mansions of her nobles, so many of which are still the ornaments of our sylvan scenes. On these visits she was entertained with pageants, in which the quaintness of the prevailing taste was oddly blended with the chivalrous feeling, which still cast a lingering lustre on the habits of society. With many weaknesses, and faults of personal character, the memory of Elizabeth has yet come down to us, as entitled to the reverence and gratitude of Englishmen; and she will ever be recorded in our annals as a great and glorious queen.

DESCENDANTS OF HENRY VII.

HENRY VII.

mar. Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV.

Margaret,
mar. 1st, James IV. of Scotland;
2nd, Douglas, Earl of Angus.

by 1st husband

James V. of Scotland,
mar. 1st, Magdalen of
France (no issue);
2nd, Mary of Guise.

Mary Queen of Scots,
mar. 1st, Francis II. of France;
2nd, Henry Darnley.

JAMES VI. of Scotland and
I. of England.

Arthur (died before his father)
mar. Katharine of Spain.

by 2nd husband

Margaret Douglas,
mar. Lenox Stuart,
Regent of Scotland.

Henry Darnley,
mar. Mary Queen
of Scots.

1st, Katharine,
his brother's widow.

MARY I.
mar. Philip II.
of Spain.

Charles,
mar. Elizabeth Cavendish.

Arabella Stuart.

HENRY VIII.
married

2nd, Anne Boleyn. 3rd, Jane Seymour. 4th, Anne of Cleves.
5th, Kath. Howard.
6th, Kath. Parr.

EDWARD VI.

ELIZABETH.

Mary,
mar. 1st, Louis XII.
of France (no
issue);
2nd, Brandon,
Duke of Suffolk.

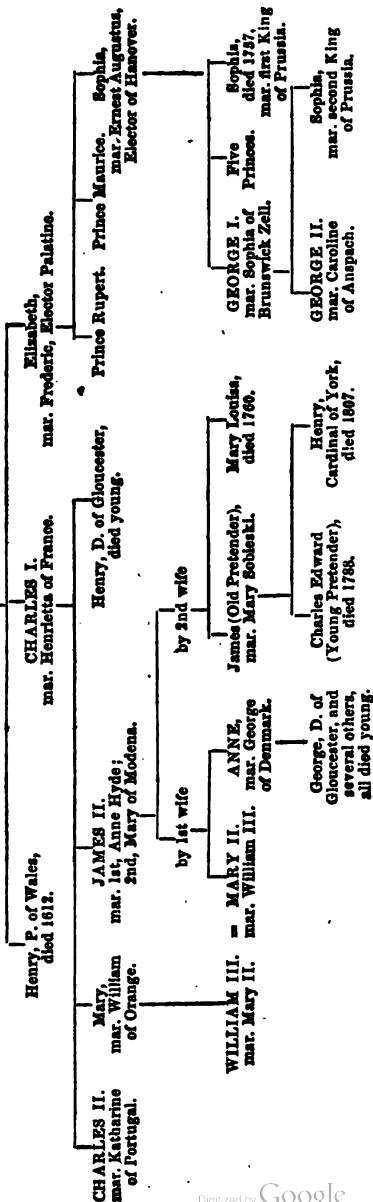
Frances,
mar. Grey, Marquis
of Dorset.

Jane Grey,
mar. Lord Guildford
Dudley.

DESCENDANTS OF JAMES I

JAMES I.

mar. Anne of Denmark.



CHAPTER XXIX.

JAMES I.

Born at Holyrood Palace, Edinburgh. Buried at Westminster. Reigned 22 years. From A.D. 1603 to A.D. 1625.

Archbishops of Canterbury.

Richard Bancroft, A.D. 1604—1611.

George Abbott, A.D. 1611—1633.

By the accession of James, the two kingdoms which had so long divided the island were united under the same prince, of the royal house of Stuart. The new king was possessed of considerable learning, and often showed much shrewdness and sagacity; but these qualifications, as well as his unquestionable kindness of heart, were spoilt by a childish vanity and want of moral courage. Slovenly in his own person, he was yet greatly captivated by splendour of apparel and personal beauty in his courtiers, and suffered himself to be led by favourites, who had no better qualifications than these. He had imbibed very lofty notions of the kingly power, and was on this account inclined to the English Church, which has ever favoured the principle of monarchy, rather than to the presbyterian system, in which he had been brought up, and which in the course of this and the following reigns became more and more infected with a levelling and republican spirit. Before he reached London he had received from the Puritans a petition for redress of what they considered grievances in the Established Church; and a conference was soon appointed at Hampton Court between several bishops and the chief puritan divines. In this discussion James himself took part with singular sagacity, and its result was wholly favourable to the Church. The demands of the Puritans were far too unreasonable to be granted, and very soon set aside the hope of agreement; but their objections may have contributed to produce some of the alterations which were soon afterwards made in the Book of Common Prayer. Among these may be mentioned the appointment of forms of thanksgiving upon several occasions; the addition of

questions and answers on the sacraments to the Catechism, which before that time had ended with the answer to the question immediately following the Lord's Prayer. James succeeded also in the course of his reign in re-establishing episcopacy in his native kingdom. Scotland had not cared to have bishops since the Reformation; and this was rightly felt by the king to affect its whole ecclesiastical polity. The ancient line of Scottish bishops had come to an end in the person of James Beaton, archbishop of Glasgow, who died April 24, 1603. King James nominated bishops to the thirteen Scottish sees; and then sent for three⁴ of them to London, where they were consecrated by English bishops on Oct. 21, 1610: on their return they consecrated the rest.

At the Hampton Court conference it was also agreed that a new translation should be made of the Holy Scriptures; and that noble version which is still used by authority in our Church was now prepared with great care by the most learned divines. Thus far James's proceedings were good; it may however be doubted whether his measures were not, in some respects, so conducted, in England as well as in Scotland, as only to embitter the feelings which were now gaining ground against that constitution of the Church, of which he saw the beauty and the apostolic origin. A plot was formed almost immediately on his accession, in favour of Lady Arabella Stuart, who (as well as James himself) was a descendant of Henry VII. She was treated with great harshness by the king, and died in prison. Sir Walter Raleigh was detained for thirteen years in the Tower for being implicated in this plot.

A much more serious conspiracy was soon afterwards entered into by the papists, who were disappointed in their expectation of being favoured by the new king. This is called the Gunpowder Plot, because the conspirators formed

⁴ John Spottiswood, Andrew Lamb, and Gavin Hamilton, who were consecrated respectively Bishops of Glasgow, Brechin, and Galloway. This succession also came to an end in the person of Thomas Sydeserf, who died Bishop of Orkney in 1663. But previously to his death, another consecration of bishops for the Church in Scotland had been obtained from England. On December 15, 1661, James Sharpe, Andrew Fairfull, Robert Leighton, and James Hamilton were consecrated respectively to the sees of St. Andrew's, Glasgow, Dumblane, and Galloway. From them the present episcopate in Scotland is derived.

the diabolical design of blowing up the parliament-house with gunpowder, at the time when James in person should open the meeting of the great national council. The chief conspirators were Catesby, a gentleman of property in Warwickshire, and Percy, a kinsman of the Earl of Northumberland. They fixed on one Guy Fawkes as their agent; a man of good family and blameless life, but remarkable for his fanatical zeal in favour of the Romish Church. Francis Tresham, Sir Everard Digby, and others, were made acquainted with the design during its progress, that they might hold themselves ready to act with the conspirators. A house adjoining the parliament-house was taken, and access thus obtained to the vaults under that building. These were filled with barrels of powder and fagots, and a train was laid, which was to be fired by Fawkes. By the providence of God, the plot was discovered a few days only before the meeting of parliament, which was appointed for Nov. 5 (1604). A mysterious letter was brought to the Lord Mounteagle, to warn him of an impending danger. It spoke of a sudden blow, and that no one should see the hand that gave it. Mounteagle was a brother-in-law of Tresham, by whom (most probably) the letter was written. He laid it at once before the council, and the king himself suggested that the vaults under the parliament-house should be searched. Fawkes was taken, as he was stepping out of the cellar, and having been (as is believed) put to the torture, confessed the whole plot. The conspirators fled when they heard that Fawkes was taken; but the house in which they were concealed was surrounded, and many of them were killed on the spot after a desperate defence. Digby, with Fawkes and several others, was executed opposite the parliament-house. This plot must ever be classed with the massacre of St. Bartholomew, and the cruelties of the Inquisition in Spain, as instances of the baleful effects produced by that false zeal in religion, which the Church of Rome has so much encouraged.

James was engaged in continual contests with his parliament, and in the early part of his reign was assisted by the sagacity of Cecil, earl of Salisbury, a son of the great Lord Burleigh. This statesman died in 1612, in which year the country lost also Prince Henry, a youth of great

promise, on whose death the king's only surviving son, Charles, became Prince of Wales. On the death of Salisbury, the king brought forward a favourite whom he had made Viscount Rochford, and soon created Earl of Somerset. This was Robert Kerr, a man of most abandoned character, who together with his wife was concerned in the murder of his secretary, Sir Thomas Overbury, for having advised him against his marriage. James had by this time transferred his affection to Villiers, who became Duke of Buckingham; and Somerset was condemned and dismissed from court, while the immediate but less guilty agents in the murder were executed.

Soon after the death of his son, the king married his only daughter Elizabeth to the Elector Palatine of the Rhine. This prince was afterwards chosen King of Bohemia on the death of the Emperor Matthias, by whom the rights secured to the Bohemian Protestants had been so grossly violated, that they refused to acknowledge his successor (Ferdinand of Austria) as their king. The elector was however driven not only from his new kingdom, but even from his hereditary dominions; and was but feebly assisted by his father-in-law, though the English were anxious to support his cause, which they looked upon as the cause opposed to Rome. The king was the less inclined to comply with this wish, because he was desirous of marrying his son to a daughter of the King of Spain, who was nearly allied to the house of Austria. With a view of furthering this marriage, the young Prince of Wales was induced by Buckingham to make a secret expedition to the court of Madrid: and it may be observed, that even in this romantic and hurried excursion, great care was taken to provide for the celebration of Divine service, according to the English Prayer Book, in the apartments of the prince. The English, however, were alarmed at the risk to which Charles was thus exposed of being influenced in favour of popery, and were not sorry when the match was afterwards broken off in a manner highly offensive to the Spanish court.

The king's desire for this marriage had induced him, some years before, to sacrifice Sir Walter Raleigh to the resentment of Spain. After being in prison for thirteen years, Raleigh had obtained permission to conduct a second ex-

pedition to South America, with the hope of realizing the golden visions in which he was prone to indulge. It proved a total failure, but was very offensive to the Spaniards; and on his return James was persuaded to let the former sentence against Raleigh (which had never been remitted) take its course, and he was most unjustly executed.

When the Spanish match was broken off, the prince was engaged to Henrietta Maria, daughter of the King of France. Before the marriage took place, James breathed his last, after a short illness (1625), meeting his end with the appearance of firmness and devotion.

In this reign the great Lord Chancellor Bacon, whom we have mentioned already as a philosopher, and who contributed so much to the advancement of science, was compelled to acknowledge himself guilty of bribery and corruption in his high office; a memorable instance that the most exalted genius will not preserve a man from disgraceful crime, without that fear of God which is the beginning of wisdom.

Throughout the reign of James, the bishops and clergy generally seem to have had clearer views of their duty to the Church than were prevalent in the latter days of Elizabeth. But orthodoxy was sadly discouraged by Bancroft's being succeeded in the see of Canterbury by Abbott, who was as much a Puritan at heart, as his predecessor had been the reverse. (It had been expected that Andrewes, bishop of Winchester, a noble and true-hearted son of the Church, would have been selected instead.) It was no unnatural result that the Puritans, or Nonconformists, gained strength daily. But the issue of this fatal step will appear in the next reign.

Before parting with James, it is fair to mention, that as he was a man of considerable erudition himself, so his court and kingdom possessed men eminent in science and literature. The learned Buchanan had been his preceptor. Shakspeare and Jonson still lived and wrote during his reign. Speed and Camden were noted as diligent antiquaries. The two Casaubons and Antonio de Dominis were specially invited to England, and patronized; and the Admirable Crichton, a Scotchman, astonished Europe with his accomplishments. A literary monarch had thus no slight influence on the literary character of his people.

CHAPTER XXX.

CHARLES I. 1625—1642 (TILL THE MEETING OF THE LONG PARLIAMENT).

Born at Holyrood Palace. Buried at Windsor. Reigned 24 years. From A.D. 1625 to A.D. 1649.

Archbishops of Canterbury.

George Abbott, 1611—1633. | William Laud, 1633—1645.
Vacancy, 16 years.

CHARLES was in his twenty-fifth year when he became king. His character was ill suited to the times in which he lived, and the spirits with which he had to cope. The House of Commons, which had gradually become conscious of its power, had now learnt to refuse supplies, unless the crown would grant a redress of grievances. Every Englishman must admire the courage with which the Commons asserted the unlawfulness of taxation without consent of parliament, and maintained the great principle that no one shall be imprisoned without being brought to a fair and open trial. The opposition, however, which began on these grounds, was soon tainted with the personal ends of those who conducted it, and degenerated into the most bitter enmity against both royalty and episcopacy. Released from the shackles of the Romish superstition, the minds of men had rushed to an opposite extreme, and had become intolerant of those restraints on the individual will, which are implied in a monarchical government and an episcopal Church.

Charles, on the other hand, had been trained in lofty notions of a right in kings to unlimited obedience, and regarded many of the concessions that were extorted from him as so many encroachments on his prerogative, which he therefore was at liberty to recall, when he should find himself able to do so. Exemplary in his conduct as a husband and father, and devoutly attached to the English Church, he yet suffered himself at times to dissemble with his enemies. With chivalrous courage, and a cultivated mind, he showed too often not only an unbending will, but a weak judgment, and was ever too much influenced by his queen, and other counsellors far inferior in ability

to himself. In the early part of his reign our sympathy will often be with the parliaments, which upheld the rights of the people; but in the latter period of his history, our judgment as well as feeling will for the most part be in favour of the king.

He was at first much influenced by the Duke of Buckingham, who was both disliked and suspected by the people: and though a popular war with Spain and Austria was impending, the first parliament that met would grant little more than 100,000*l.*; a sum very inadequate to the occasion. The feeling against Buckingham was increased by a discovery that it was intended to employ against the French Huguenots at Rochelle some ships that were collected for the Spanish war; and also by the failure of an expedition against Cadiz. On the meeting of the second parliament, Buckingham was impeached as the cause of all the evils under which the kingdom suffered. To screen his favourite, the king dissolved the parliament, and proceeded to raise money on his own authority. He had been induced by Buckingham to engage in a war with France, and an expedition was led to Rochelle, which failed through the duke's misconduct. Charles summoned a third parliament, which at once embodied the grievances of the nation in what is known as the Petition of Right; declaring illegal all taxation by the king alone, and asserting the right of all subjects to the writ of *habeas corpus*. This is a writ by which persons who are imprisoned can demand an open hearing, according to the law of the land. A bill was founded on this petition, and passed with the king's reluctant consent: and though this law was afterwards disregarded, it yet remained as a monument of the rights of Englishmen, to which they could ever appeal, and which they were able at last to establish.

A fleet and army were at this time assembled at Portsmouth, which Buckingham was again to command; but on leaving his chamber one morning, he was stabbed by an unknown hand, and died immediately of the wound. The assassin proved to be one Felton, a man of a fanatical spirit, who had learnt to regard the duke as the great grievance of the kingdom. He was executed as a murderer.

On the death of Buckingham, Charles took to his counsels Sir Thomas Wentworth, whom he afterwards made

Earl of Strafford, and Laud, bishop of London, who on the death of Abbott became archbishop of Canterbury. The third parliament was soon dissolved, after a scene of great violence, in which the speaker was forcibly held in his chair, when he would have left the house in compliance with the king's desire, who even threatened to force the doors and take away the mace.

For nearly twelve years from this period Charles summoned no parliament. He made peace with Spain and France, and raised by his own authority such taxes as he wanted, especially certain duties on the import of wine and other merchandise, called tonnage and poundage. With these he maintained a brilliant court, and encouraged the fine arts, for which he had a very correct taste. The kingdom at this time enjoyed much prosperity.

Under the influence of Laud, the king took measures for the more decent celebration of Divine worship according to the English ritual, and punished with severity such persons as opposed his restorations; especially Prynne, a barrister, and Bastwick, a physician, who wrote against episcopacy. Abbott had been very remiss in enforcing either the doctrine of the Church, or its discipline. Even the edifices of the Church had been suffered to go out of repair. The burden of the expense occasioned by the attempt to enforce the necessary reparations, concurred with the loose way of thinking and acting generally prevalent, to exasperate people against the archbishop, and by inference against the king. Perhaps also things were carried by the authorities with too high a hand in Church as well as in State.

In civil matters, the arbitrary manner in which the king governed excited a growing discontent; and at length the payment of a tax called ship-money, which the king revived, was resisted by John Hampden, a gentleman of Bucks. The cause was tried, and decided in Charles's favour; but the example of resistance which was thus set was not forgotten. Having lost his cause, and despairing of the liberty of England, Hampden was preparing to leave the kingdom with Oliver Cromwell and others of the same opinion, when they were stopped by a proclamation forbidding all ship-masters to take out passengers to New England without a licence. How little did Charles foresee the part which those persons were to play, when he thus stopped their departure from his kingdom!

The king had appointed Strafford his deputy in Ireland, and that nobleman's measures were very successful in quieting and improving the condition of the country. In Scotland, however, the attempts of Charles and Archbishop Laud to strengthen the cause of episcopacy produced a violent reaction. The occasion was, their endeavour to introduce there the Liturgy of the Church of England. Such a measure had been contemplated by James, who, as we have seen already, had procured the consecration of bishops for Scotland in the year 1610. An act had been passed in Scotland, authorizing certain of the bishops of that country to prepare a Book of Common Prayer. The project was dropped for a time, but it was revived in the reign of Charles. It was, however, then determined not to introduce exactly the same Prayer Book, lest it should be supposed that the Scotch Church was intended thereby to be made dependent upon that of England. At the same time, the two Liturgies were not to be allowed to differ in any material points, lest the Romanists should exult in any fancied retrograde movement on the part of those who had thrown off their superstitious observances. Accordingly a book was framed by the Scottish bishops, and approved by Archbishop Laud, rather on the model of the first book of King Edward VI., than of that then in use. It was first introduced in Edinburgh on the 23rd of July, 1637. The result was a serious outbreak in favour of the Presbyterian system—a confusion, it is to be feared, in the case of many, a wilful one, of the claims of Popery and Episcopacy—and a solemn league and covenant against either. Scotland had to be invaded by an English army. In order to provide funds for the war that broke forth on these grounds, a parliament was summoned, which met April 13, 1640; but was dissolved in about three weeks, in consequence of the resistance which it threatened to the measures of the king. Finding, however, that the war in Scotland became serious, he was forced to summon another parliament, which met Nov. 3, in the same year, and is known in history as the Long Parliament. From its meeting we may date the rise of a tyranny far more insupportable than the despotic rule of Charles, and a rebellion that overthrew both the altar and the throne.

CHAPTER XXXI.

CHARLES I. CONTINUED.

1642—1649. (PERIOD OF THE GREAT REBELLION.)

THE House of Commons, having chosen for its speaker a lawyer named Lenthall, proceeded to impeach both Strafford and Laud on charges of high treason. The trial of Strafford was managed by Pym and other members of the house; and the earl defended himself with so much power and clearness, that the tide seemed likely to turn in his favour. It was then resolved to proceed against him by bill of attainder, which was carried through both houses, together with another, that the parliament should not be prorogued nor adjourned till all grievances should be redressed. This bill was an entire change of the English constitution; and far better would it have been for Charles, had he submitted to any alternative rather than consent to these bills, by which he sacrificed an innocent minister, and also the ancient government of his kingdom. It is plain that Pym thirsted for the blood of Strafford. Many years before, when Strafford ceased to act with the popular party, Pym said to him, "You are going to leave us, but I will never leave you while your head is on your shoulders." He now alarmed the king by telling the house that Charles was about to bring up the army to overawe the Commons. After much hesitation, in the course of which Strafford wrote to desire that his royal master would consider only his own interest, Charles signed a commission to pass both the bills. The earl was executed the following day on Tower-hill. When led to execution, he stopped before the windows of the chamber in which Laud was imprisoned, while the aged prelate raised his hands in token of that blessing which he was unable to pronounce. The earl met his end with great firmness and piety.

Charles now gave way to the demands of the parliament, but was suspected of watching an opportunity to regain his power, and his enemies charged him with encouraging a rebellion that broke forth in Ireland, and led to the most shocking massacre of the English. The feeling against the

king was confirmed by many imprudent acts on his part, and especially by his going down to the house to seize Pym and Hampden with three other members. His attempt was ineffectual; and it now became plain that the dispute could be settled only by an appeal to the sword. The Commons demanded the expulsion of the bishops from the House of Lords; and this the king was induced to agree to. They claimed also the command of the militia throughout the kingdom: and when Charles was pressed to yield this point for a time, he exclaimed with much heat, "Not for an hour." The concession would have left him but the shadow of his royal power.

Troops were now raised on both sides, and the royal standard was set up at Nottingham, Aug. 25, 1642. The balance of power seemed much in favour of the parliament; but the progress of the war was at first favourable to the royal cause. The first battle in which Englishmen had opposed each other since the wars of the Roses, took place at Edge-hill, on the borders of Warwickshire and Oxfordshire. The parliamentary forces were commanded by the Earl of Essex, while the king's nephews, Prince Rupert and Prince Maurice, were entrusted with high commands in the royal army, which gained the advantage in this battle. The king marched to Oxford, which had ever been loyal to him, and where he chiefly resided (when not engaged in the field) during this lamentable contest.

The war, which lasted about three years, was on the whole conducted with less violence and cruelty than are usual in civil strife; and instances of the greatest heroism and loyalty were shown by many noble ladies, as well as by the gentry who rallied round their king. The two parties were distinguished by the names of the Cavaliers and Roundheads. To the former belonged, for the most part, the gentry of the land; to the latter, the middle classes, among whom the leaven of puritanical and republican principles had most widely spread. Negotiations for peace were from time to time attempted; but came to nothing, from the encroaching spirit of the parliament, which could be satisfied only by the surrender of the English Church as well as of the royal power. At one time the king summoned a parliament at Oxford; but its proceedings had little effect.

In the first year of the war, Hampden received his death-wound in an engagement near Wycomb; but his loss was balanced by that of Lord Falkland at Newbury, who seems, of all who took part in these troubles, to have had the purest patriotism. The commanders of most note on the royal side (besides Prince Rupert) were the Marquesses of Worcester, Hertford, and Newcastle, and the Lord Goring. On the other side, Sir Thomas Fairfax and the Generals Waller, Massey, and Skippon, were chiefly distinguished, until the energy of Oliver Cromwell enabled him to obtain ascendancy over all the others. His military skill appeared conspicuously at the battle of Marston Moor (July 2, 1644), where he overthrew the royal forces under Prince Rupert. From this time the cause of Charles declined. An army from Scotland under the Earl of Leven had been summoned by the parliament to their aid; and though Charles was cheered by the brilliant success of the Marquess of Montrose in the Highlands of Scotland, he received so complete an overthrow from Fairfax at Naseby, near Daventry (June 13, 1645), that he resolved to deliver himself up to the Scottish army. He was treated by the Scots with outward respect: but they at length basely delivered their sovereign to the parliamentary forces, on the payment of the arrears which were due to them.

Before this time the trial of Laud had been brought to a close by a most iniquitous bill, in which only six peers could be brought to concur. He suffered on the 10th of January, 1645, with the constancy of a martyr; and with him fell for a season, so far as man could cause it to fall, the Church for which he died. "Thus fell Laud," says Heylin, "and the Church fell with him: the Liturgy whereof was voted down about the same time that the Ordinance was passed for his condemnation; the Presbyterian Directory⁶ authorized for the press by ordinance March 13; Episcopacy, root and branch, suppressed by ordinance in like manner, October 9, 1646; the lands of the cathedrals sold; the bishops dispossessed of their lands and rents, without the charity of a small annual pension towards their

⁶ A sort of substitute for a Prayer Book, according to the Presbyterian system, sanctioned by parliament during the great rebellion. It did not contain *forms* of Prayer, but *directions* for praying, preaching, and the performance of ministerial offices generally.

support; the regular, conformable Clergy sequestered, ejected, and turned out of all, to the utter undoing of themselves, their wives, and their children⁶."

The rise of Cromwell was the more important, because he was at the head of a sect called the Independents, who were distinguished for their stern and fanatical temper; and as much opposed to the Presbyterians as these had been to the Church of England. The principles of this sect spread widely in the army, and that portion which embraced these views succeeded in obtaining possession of the king's person from the guards which the parliament had placed about him. He was now brought to Hampton Court, and treated with outward respect. There was even some hope that Cromwell might embrace his cause; but the distrust of Charles, which was so general, seems to have stood in the way of any such arrangement, though it is not unlikely that Cromwell connived at the king's escape, who withdrew himself from Hampton Court, and fled to Titchfield-house in Hants. His friends then opened a correspondence with Colonel Hammond, the governor of Carisbrook Castle in the Isle of Wight; the result of which was, that Charles passed over to the island; but soon found himself a prisoner in that castle. Efforts in his favour were made by the royalists; but with ill success; and treaties were opened with him by the Scots as well as by the parliament, which came to nothing. The Scots, however, sent an army into England, which was defeated by Cromwell, who then sent Colonel Pride to purge the parliament of all the more moderate members. This measure, which was effected by violence, is known as "Pride's purge," and the miserable remnant of the house was called "The Rump." The king made some vain attempts to escape from Carisbrook, and was brought to Windsor. From thence he was removed to London, as the house (under the influence of the army) had resolved to bring him to trial. A court, of which one Bradshaw was president, was constituted in Westminster-hall; and though the peers refused to concur in this proceeding, Charles was arraigned on a charge of high treason, for having levied war against his parliament.

His behaviour in these last scenes of his life was kingly

⁶ Quoted by Archdeacon Berens.

and Christian. He had steadily refused to sacrifice whatever is essential to the episcopal government of the Church, and he now met the violent death which he saw before him with mildness and constancy. Throughout the trial (which lasted more than a week) he denied the right of subjects to sit in judgment on their sovereign; and was not suffered to speak when judgment was passed upon him. The soldiers grossly insulted him as he passed up the hall; and one of them even spat on him. "Poor souls!" he said, "they would do the same to their own generals for sixpence." One soldier was struck down by his officer for imploring a blessing upon him:—"Surely," said the king, "the punishment exceeds the offence." The warrant for his death was signed by fifty-nine commissioners. The brutal levity which was joined to the fanaticism of the regicides may be seen in the fact, that as Cromwell approached the table with the pen in his hand to sign the warrant, he drew it across the face of a member of the court named Marten, who did the same to Cromwell.

Happily the eldest sons of Charles were at the Hague. He was allowed to see the Duke of Gloucester and the Princess Elizabeth; and the meeting which took place was as tender as might be expected, from the depth and purity of his affections. He told his daughter that he died a martyr for his people; an expression which he repeated on the scaffold; and desired her also to tell the queen that he had never even in thought swerved from his fidelity to her. The Duke of Gloucester was only three years of age. The king took him in his arms, and said: "My child, they will cut off thy father's head, and will perhaps make thee a king; but remember, thou must not be a king as long as thy brothers Charles and James are alive. They will cut off their heads when they can take them: and they will cut off thy head at last, and therefore I charge thee do not be made a king by them." The child burst into tears, and said, "I will be torn in pieces first." The king was allowed the attendance of Bishop Juxon, who administered to him the Holy Communion. During the night that preceded his execution, he slept soundly; and, on rising, desired to be dressed with great care, as for the day of his second marriage. Juxon prayed with him, and read the lesson for the day (Jan. 30), which is the 27th chapter of

St. Matthew. Thus did the Church, to which he was so truly attached, direct his mind at that moment to the only foundation for a Christian's hope, our Lord's atoning sufferings, and the model which they present for His followers.

The scaffold was erected opposite his chamber in the royal banqueting-house at Whitehall, and guarded by regiments of foot and horse. The streets within sight of the scaffold were thronged with people. Charles walked at his usual quick pace through the park, calling out to the guard, "March on apace." He showed anxiety that the axe should be sharp and keen; for he disliked pain, though he did not fear death. After speaking with calmness and dignity to those about him, he was reminded by Juxon that he had only one stage more to take, which, though turbulent and troublesome, would carry him from earth to heaven. "I go," said the king, "from a corruptible crown to an incorruptible, where no disturbance can be." He gave his cloak and George to the bishop, saying, "Remember." His head was struck off at one blow; and a groan arose from the multitude, when the fatal deed was done, as if to the last moment they expected some other end to this tragedy. Many ran to dip their handkerchiefs in his blood; and the saintly meekness with which he bore adversity, as well as the firmness with which he struggled and suffered for the English Church, will ever justify the title which has now been given him by many generations—King Charles the Martyr.

CHAPTER XXXII.

CHARLES II. (TILL THE RESTORATION.)

*Born at St. James's Palace. Buried in Westminster Abbey.
Reigned 36 years. From A.D. 1649 to A.D. 1685.*

Archbishops of Canterbury.

(Vacancy 16 years, from A.D. 1645— 1660.)	Gilbert Sheldon, A.D. 1663—1678.
William Juxon, A.D. 1660—1663.	William Sancroft, A.D. 1678—1691.

Usurpation of the Cromwells, from A.D. 1649 to A.D. 1660.

THE murderous execution of Charles was followed by Acts to abolish the House of Peers and the office of a king. An engagement to be true to the Commonwealth of England

was substituted for the oaths of allegiance and supremacy; and all acts were to run in the name of "the keepers of the liberties of England." A council of state was appointed, of which Bradshaw was president; and it found full employment in quelling the mutinous temper of the army, as well as in the affairs of Ireland and Scotland.

In Ireland the royal cause was supported by the Marquesses of Ormonde and Clanricarde; and in Scotland Prince Charles was received as king. The Scots had assisted the parliament in their rebellion, but were not prepared to abolish the royal office. Charles was however forced to take the covenant in favour of the presbyterian system, and was treated with great rudeness by the Scotch preachers and their supporters.

The energy of Cromwell brought the parliament through their difficulties. Being sent to Ireland as lord-lieutenant, he conquered great part of that island, and was then entrusted with the command of the English forces in Scotland. He routed the Scotch at Dunbar (Sept. 3, 1650), and great part of the country submitted to him. Charles was, however, crowned at Scone, and resolved on the bold measure of a march into England. He was followed by Cromwell, and a battle took place at Worcester (Sept. 3, 1651), in which the Scots, after a brave resistance, were completely defeated. Vast numbers of them were sent as slaves to the West Indies, or to work in the mines of Africa. Charles himself escaped, and wandered about in various disguises for six weeks with a price set on his head. He once concealed himself in the foliage of an oak at the very time when his pursuers were passing under the tree. In the course of his wanderings his secret became known to upwards of forty persons, but none betrayed the trust. At length he embarked in a collier vessel at Shoreham, and was put ashore at Fechamp in Normandy. Scotland was annexed to England as a conquered province; and a settlement of Ireland was effected by the severe measure of confiscating the estates of such persons as had been concerned in the late troubles, and transporting them in vast numbers to other parts of the island.

Cromwell now thought that the time was come, when he might take the reins of government into his own hands: and with this view he resolved to rid himself of the remnant

of the Long Parliament. He went down to the house with a party of soldiers whom he left in the lobby, and having taken his seat, proceeded to reproach the members with their faults. At length he stamped with his foot, and exclaimed, "You are no parliament. I say you are no parliament. Bring them in." The soldiers then entered, and when Sir Harry Vane (a republican) remonstrated against this violence, Cromwell cried out, "Sir Harry Vane! O Sir Harry Vane! The Lord deliver me from Sir Harry Vane!" Then charging other members with their vicious lives, he desired the soldiers to clear the house, and (pointing to the mace) told them to take away "that fool's bauble."

His next measure was to summon a kind of parliament of his own, which was called Barebones' Parliament; from one Praise-God Barebones, who was a member of it. This assembly (as Cromwell probably foresaw) soon made itself ridiculous by its proceedings, and was dismissed. His friends had thus some pretence for alleging that it had become necessary to confer upon Cromwell supreme power, with the title of Lord Protector. He was installed into his office with much solemnity, and governed England with a far more despotic sway than the Stuarts had ever attempted to exercise. He called, indeed, some parliaments, and attempted to organize an upper house, being exceedingly desirous of obtaining from them the name as well as the power of a king; but those only were admitted of these assemblies who obtained a warrant from his council, and he dismissed them when they became refractory. The title of king was offered him; but he found it necessary to decline it, for fear of estranging some of his chief supporters. England was parcelled out into eleven military districts, under as many major-generals, to levy the taxes, which were laid with great severity on all who were attached to the royal cause.

His government at home was disturbed by continual conspiracies; for his person was not more hateful to the royalists than to the republicans and fanatics, whom he had used as a ladder to his exalted office. Abroad, however, his government was eminently successful. A war had been going on with the Dutch, who at this time had dismissed the Orange family from the chief magistracy, and were

under the pensionary De Witt. They had been defeated in a great naval battle at La Hogue, by Admiral Blake; but not till they had obtained some signal triumphs under their own renowned admirals, Van Tromp and De Ruyter. Cromwell made peace with them after another naval victory, in which General Monk distinguished himself together with Blake; and he entered into commercial treaties with Denmark, Sweden, and Portugal. Foreign nations saw how little the Protector was afraid of them, by the vigorous justice which he executed on a brother of the Portuguese ambassador (notwithstanding the remonstrance of the other ambassadors), for a murder which he had committed. Spain and France were rivals for the Protector's favour. From Spain, however, he demanded that the trade in the Atlantic should be free to the English; and while he sent one fleet to the Mediterranean to exact satisfaction from the Deys of Algiers and Tripoli, he sent another under Admiral Penn to the West Indies; and the conquest of Jamaica was the fruit of this expedition.

In the midst of these successes, the life of Cromwell was a burden to him. He read a book called "Killing no Murder;" which was written on the fatal principle, that to kill an usurper is an act of virtue; and from that time was never seen to smile. He wore armour under his clothes, and never slept more than two or three nights in the same chamber. Harassed by this continual suspicion and alarm, he was also afflicted with the loss of his favourite daughter; who is said to have reproached him with his crimes on her death-bed. With all his faults, he was ever tenderly attached to his family. His health gave way, and he died in the 59th year of his age, Sept. 3, 1658, a miserable instance of the bitter fruits of successful rebellion and gratified ambition. He began, perhaps, by being a sincere enthusiast, but became a regicide and usurper; and we cannot doubt that he ended by being an hypocrite and self-deceiver. On his death-bed he is said to have asked his chaplain whether it was possible to fall from grace; and received the awful and delusive assurance that such a fall is not possible. "Then," said he, "I am safe; for I am sure I was once in a state of grace."

Richard Cromwell was proclaimed Protector on his father's death; but it was plain that he had not energy to

grasp the power which was put within his reach. He was of a weak, though amiable character; and in the end retired into private life. The remains of the Long Parliament were now once more assembled, and it seemed likely that the supreme power would be seized by some popular general. The commander in Scotland at this time was General Monk, and his influence overshadowed the interest of the other companions of Cromwell. His behaviour was for a time very mysterious; but he probably saw that the people were weary of the late military rule, and sighed for the restoration of their ancient government. He determined to throw his weight into the royal cause; and having marched to London, he called together the members of the Long Parliament, who had been expelled by Colonel Pride, in 1648. The house thus constituted, dissolved itself, after having summoned a new parliament, in which the king's restoration was agreed on with wonderful unanimity. Commissioners were sent to Breda to invite his return.

Charles lost no time in availing himself of the tide that had turned in his favour. He was received by Monk at Dover, and entered London, on his own birthday, May 29, 1660. All ranks poured forth to see and welcome him. He was greeted by the army with joyful acclamations as he passed. The houses were hung with tapestry; and such was the general joy, that Charles in his lively manner observed, "It must have been my own fault that I did not come back before, for every one tells me that he always wished for my restoration."

Before we enter upon the affairs which ensued upon Charles's return, it may be well to consider for a moment what had been the state of religion, literature, and the fine arts, during the eventful period from 1642 to 1660. The Church, as we have seen, had been trodden under foot. Presbyterianism rose for a time in its room. The outward character of this form of religion, if form it may be called, was stern and forbidding: the most innocent amusements were considered sinful; holydays and holyday sports, even to the may-pole and the puppet-show, were put down by civil enactment, and Christmas itself changed from a cheerful Festival into a Fast for national sins. In matters of faith, the Presbyterians, although they had themselves objected to any thing like restraint, proved that they possessed

more intolerance than they had complained of in others. "They interdicted (says a recent writer), under heavy penalties, the Book of Common Prayer. It was a crime in a child to read by the bedside of a sick parent one of those beautiful collects which had soothed the griefs of forty generations of Christians. Severe punishments were denounced against such as should presume to blame the Calvinistic mode of worship⁷." At length Presbyterianism gave way to Independency, that is, to the more open avowal of the principle that every man may make a religion for himself. Sects multiplied daily; and each new sect seemed to endeavour to surpass its predecessor in extravagance. Most daring claims were made to special Inspiration from the Almighty; and he was esteemed most spiritual whose heresy was most startling. The very names of the greater number of these sects have passed away; but it is worth noticing, that the origin of Quakerism is to be traced to this period. George Fox, the son of a Lancashire weaver, was the founder of a body of persons who named themselves "Friends." They were called "Quakers," in consequence of the distortions and convulsions with which their devotional exercises were not unfrequently accompanied.

Such, in matters of religion, were the Puritans. It need not be a subject of wonder, that in neither of its forms, whether of Presbyterianism or of Independency, was Puritanism the parent of men of taste and literature. One great exception exists, it is true. John Milton was secretary to the usurping council of state; he attacked Prelacy; he even defended the murder of Charles I.: but he was the author of "Paradise Lost." A few other names might be cited; but, in general, the learned men of the day were Churchmen. At any rate, Clarendon, Jeremy Taylor, Hammond, Usher, Cowley, Boyle⁸, Chillingworth, and Davenant, were not Puritans—Dryden was at one time a Cromwellite, but he soon gave up that side of politics and religion. The fine arts were sadly neglected during the whole time of the rebellion. It was not uncommon to regard them as a perversion of the faculties which God has given to man. Under the

⁷ Macaulay, *Hist. of England*, vol. i. p. 160.

⁸ The Royal Society was not incorporated until after the Restoration.

influence of this feeling, cathedrals were defaced, and paintings, statues, and ancient monuments and brasses ruthlessly destroyed.

It may surely be hoped that the kingdom learnt a lesson which will never be forgotten, from the iron rule of Oliver Cromwell, as well as from the anarchy and fanaticism which it superseded. England was thus taught the value of an hereditary monarchy, and the blessedness and moderation of that Church on which it had so madly trampled. The Great Rebellion, which caused such misery to our forefathers, will not have been fruitless of good, if it makes us cling more fondly to that ancient constitution in Church and State which was now so happily restored.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

CHARLES II. (AFTER THE RESTORATION.)

CHARLES rewarded General Monk by making him Duke of Albemarle. Hyde, who had attended the king in his exile, and afterwards became Earl of Clarendon, was appointed chancellor; and Lord Southampton treasurer. The royalists, in general, complained of the king's ingratitude, and many who had lost their all in his service were left in neglect. On the other hand, Charles was averse to severity; and though some persons who had signed the warrant for his father's execution were brought to the scaffold or confined for life, the royalists (on the whole) did not disgrace their triumph by showing a vindictive temper. In arranging the royal revenue, many abuses which had arisen from the feudal system were done away with; and a permanent income was settled on the crown, instead of the profits which had been derived from wardships, and the other incidents of military tenure. A conference was held at the Savoy Palace¹ to settle the affairs of religion; the result of which was unfavourable to the wishes of the Presbyterians. A few alterations indeed were made in the Prayer Book, but they were rather improvements of

¹ So called from Peter of Savoy, uncle of the queen of Henry III., by whom it was built.

arrangement than changes of doctrines ; and the judicious preface by which it is introduced was composed. This is the last revision which our excellent Liturgy has undergone.

Having been thus revised, the Prayer Book was approved by convocation, and confirmed by the king under the great seal. It was next adopted by the parliament in the Act of Uniformity, called the Bartholomew Act. The principal provisions of this Act were as follows :—All who were not duly ordained were excluded from performing acts of ministry in the Church ; assent and consent to all things contained in the Book of Common Prayer was required from all who would hold ecclesiastical preferment ; and the right to rebel against the king, or the lawfulness of taking the covenant, were to be disowned. Whosoever refused to comply with the terms of this Act by St. Bartholomew's day, was declared to be *ipso facto* deprived of his living. About 2000 Presbyterian or Independent ministers refused, and were deprived accordingly ; but very many had conformed already, among whom was Reynolds, who was raised to the see of Norwich.

The bishops who had survived the rebellion had resumed their sees, or had been advanced to others immediately on the king's return. Juxon, bishop of London, whom we have seen with Charles I. on the scaffold, though in extreme old age, was made Archbishop of Canterbury ; Sanderson was consecrated bishop of Lincoln ; and other men of high character were placed in other sees. The clergy, who had suffered for conscience sake, returned to their livings ; and the property of the Church, which had been confiscated by the rebels, was given back to it. These arrangements were effected within two years of the restoration, and for a short time every thing seemed to be going on prosperously. It was, however, soon discovered that the character of Charles was some alloy to the blessings which the country enjoyed in the revival of their ancient government in Church and State. Though affable and witty, the king was unprincipled and selfish. A Romanist at heart, he had not the courage to follow the example which his brother James (Duke of York) soon gave him, of avowing his religion. During his exile, he had contracted the most dissolute habits ; and on his return, he copied the disregard

for the decencies of life for which the court of Louis XIV. then king of France, was infamous. He married an infanta of Portugal, but did not the less connect himself with other women ; on whom, as well as on his illegitimate children, he bestowed the highest titles. He had no issue by his queen.

Charles was always secretly aiming to bring in popery, and to make himself an absolute king : not that, like his father, he thought unlimited power his rightful heritage, but that he wished to be under no restraint in the indulgence of his pleasures ; nor was the Duke of York exempt from the same licentious tastes, while he was far more zealous than the king in promoting the interest of the Church of Rome. This prince married a daughter of the Earl of Clarendon ; by whom he became the father of the Princesses Mary and Anne. He afterwards married a sister of the Duke of Modena. Being made lord high admiral, he seems to have induced his brother to declare war very needlessly with the United States of Holland. Many naval battles were fought without very decided advantage to either side ; though on one occasion the Dutch fleet under De Ruyter sailed up the Thames, burned the ships of war which lay at Chatham, and threatened London itself. (A.D. 1667.)

The country was at this time visited with two great calamities in succeeding years. The first (A.D. 1665) was a plague, which spread through many parts of the kingdom, and carried off in London alone upwards of one hundred thousand people. The inhabitants were summoned by a bell to bring out their dead ; which were thrown, without any religious rite, into a pit prepared in the nearest churchyard. The other calamity (A.D. 1666) was the most extensive fire with which London was ever visited. It broke out in Pudding-lane, near the only bridge which London then possessed, and raged with fury for five days, consuming more than thirteen thousand houses, eighty-nine churches, and the cathedral of St. Paul's. But London rose from its ashes in greater beauty than before, and the streets were rebuilt with more attention to health and regularity. The column, called *The Monument*, was raised to commemorate this awful fire ; in checking which the king exerted himself with energy and humanity.

At this time Louis XIV. was pushing his conquests in Flanders, and aiming at an universal rule in Europe. The Dutch were alarmed at his progress, and sued for peace. A treaty, called "The Triple Alliance," was formed by the agency of Sir William Temple between England, Sweden, and Holland, against the French king; and well would it have been for Charles's honour, had he been true to the engagements which he thus contracted. Anxious, however, to dispense with parliaments, and to raise by other means the money required for his pleasures, he stooped (through a great part of his reign) to become the pensioner of Louis; who thus bought from a king of England the promise that he would declare himself a member of the Roman Church, and make war with the United States of Holland.

Charles had some little time before formed a ministry which was called the "Cabal," because the first letters of the names of its members were ingeniously arranged into that word. These were Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley, Lauderdale. Buckingham was the son of the late king's favourite. Ashley was afterwards made Earl of Shaftesbury. A more profligate ministry was never at the head of affairs: but their corruption was exceeded by the venality of Charles himself; of which a second war with Holland was the fruit. In this war, the young Prince of Orange greatly distinguished himself against the armies of Charles's ally, the King of France. A marriage was, however, arranged between this prince and the Princess Mary, the daughter of the Duke of York; whose second daughter (the Princess Anne) was afterwards married to Prince George of Denmark.

Peace was at length concluded with the United States of Holland on favourable terms to England, but only that Charles might return to his dishonourable engagements with Louis, who himself made peace with Holland by the treaty of Nimeguen (1678).

The country, which had hailed the king's return had long learnt to distrust his principles, and was alarmed at the prospect of a popish successor in the person of his brother.

At the meeting of the parliament in 1673, this temper displayed itself in a manner not to be mistaken. Charles had issued the year before a proclamation, generally called "the declaration of indulgence." It professed to suspend

the penal laws which had been enacted against all non-conformists or recusants soever; Protestant dissenters were permitted the public exercise of their form of religion; and Romanists the exercise of theirs in their private houses. But the parliament saw that the king's design, though in appearance liberal, was to protect his brother. Remonstrances were made; and the king was obliged to withdraw the declaration. A law was forthwith passed, which imposed a test upon all who should enjoy any public office. They were to take the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, to receive the Holy Eucharist at the hands of a minister of the Church of England, and to abjure the doctrine of transubstantiation.

In 1679 the Long Parliament, as it was called, because it had sat by prorogations ever since the Restoration, was dissolved. A new one² was summoned forthwith. It met under great excitement. The fear of popery was strong in the minds both of the people and of their representatives. Of this the immediate causes were as follows.

It had been alleged that just before the dissolution of the late parliament, a popish plot, on a very extended scale, had been discovered. The informer was one Dr. Titus Oates, who had been in turns an anabaptist preacher, a clergyman of the Church of England, and a papist. Through all his changes he had borne a most corrupt character, and was, consequently, unworthy of credit. But, such was the temper of the time, his testimony, though to the highest degree suspicious, brought many innocent persons to the scaffold. New perplexity was created by information of another plot, called the Mealtub Plot, from the reported discovery of some treasonable papers in a barrel of flour. Under the panic occasioned by these real or pretended conspiracies, a bill of exclusion³ was brought forward by Lord Shaftesbury (who had turned against the Court) and Lord Russell. It was carried in the House of Commons, but rejected in the House of Lords by a considerable majority, much to the chagrin of its promoters, especially of Lord Russell. That nobleman

² This parliament passed a Bill to render the operation of the *Habeas Corpus* Act more easy and effectual.

³ Its object was to exclude the Duke of York, as being a papist, from the succession to the throne.

himself was soon afterwards implicated in a conspiracy which was formed by some of the republican faction, who began to despair of the liberties of England. This party contained persons of various ranks and opinions ; and some of the more desperate had planned to shoot the king, from a building called the Rye-house, near Newmarket ; and the plot is therefore known as the Rye-house Plot. It does not appear that Lord Russell was privy to this part of the scheme ; and the evidence against him was very questionable. His wife, a lady of distinguished excellence, acted as his secretary on the trial ; the result of which was that he was beheaded in Lincoln's-Inn Fields. He was a man of sincerity and virtuous private life, and met his end with Christian resignation and cheerfulness. Algernon Sidney, a decided republican, who was implicated in the same conspiracy, was executed on Tower-hill, a few months after the death of Lord Russell (1686).

Soon after the king's return, episcopacy⁴ had been restored in Scotland ; and throughout the greater part of this reign it was upheld by a persecution of the Presbyterians which was carried on with the most revolting cruelty. An insurrection took place, but was crushed with great severity by Graham of Claverhouse, who became Lord Dundee. It was at length put down by the Duke of Monmouth, an illegitimate son of the king ; who would have dealt more gently with the insurgents, had he not been controlled by the influence of Graham and the Duke of Lauderdale. On the other hand, Archbishop Sharpe was murdered in cold blood by a party of the class of fanatics called Cameronians ; and the whole history of these troubles exhibits a picture of the worst parts of human nature ; relieved only by the faith and courage with which many of the persecuted Presbyterians submitted to torture and death.

The king had probably injured his constitution by early excesses, and had a fit of apoplexy in the 55th year of his age. He died Feb. 6, 1685, and was succeeded by his brother James.

In this reign the clergy first ceased to tax themselves in their own convocation ; an arrangement was made between Sheldon, archbishop of Canterbury, and the Lord Chan-

⁴ See p. 110, note.

cellor Hyde, by which it was settled, that the clergy should be included in the money bills passed in parliament. From this period the convocation gradually lost its civil importance as a part of the constitution.

It may be mentioned also, that the appellations of Whig and Tory began to distinguish the two great political parties in the country in this reign. The former is said to have been a nickname of the ultra-Protestant fanatics in the west of Scotland, and the latter to have been a familiar designation of certain Popish outlaws in Ireland. Whig was used, at this time, to designate those who were opposed to a Roman Catholic prince. Tory, those who had no objection to see such a person on the throne. But we shall see that these terms expanded in signification soon afterwards.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

JAMES II.

Born at St. James's Palace. Buried in the Nunnery of the Benedictines, at Paris. Reigned 4 years. From A.D. 1685 to A.D. 1689.

Archbishop of Canterbury.

William Sancroft, A.D. 1677—1691.

At the council which assembled on the death of Charles, the new king declared his purpose of maintaining the Church and constitution of the country as established by law. His conduct soon made his people mistrust the sincerity of this declaration. He went publicly to Divine service celebrated according to the Romish ritual, relaxed the enforcement of laws against Romanists, and sent the Earl of Castlemain as his ambassador to Rome. His measures for the reconciliation of his kingdom to that see appeared so imprudent to the pope, that the earl was coldly received; and though a nuncio was sent to England, he did not openly assume that character at first. Monks in the habit of their order now appeared at court, as well as in all parts of London; and the alarm which was excited by these signs of the king's intention was greatly increased, when he claimed the power of dispensing by his own act with the execution of all laws.

The opponents of James in the late reign had on several occasions put forward the Duke of Monmouth as his rival,

though Charles invariably declared that he was never married to that nobleman's mother. The discontent, however, which was felt at James's evident design to introduce popery into his kingdom, encouraged Monmouth to raise his standard against his uncle. He was assisted in his enterprise by the Earl of Argyle, who had long been in exile; but the scheme was ill prepared, and Argyle, who landed in Scotland, was taken and executed in Edinburgh. Monmouth collected some troops, but they dispersed at the approach of the royal army; and the duke was himself taken in the fields, with nothing but some peas in his pockets, the only sustenance which he had had for some days. He was beheaded on Tower-hill, to the great regret of the people, with whom he was generally a favourite.

The king was relentless, not only in the case of his nephew, but also in wreaking his vengeance on all who had assisted his rebellion. Judge Jeffries (who was soon afterwards made lord chancellor) was sent into the west, and behaved with the most savage insolence and cruelty in the trials over which he presided. In his circuit, which James always spoke of as "Jeffries' campaign," more than 250 prisoners were executed with dreadful severity, and vast numbers sent as slaves to the plantations.

Elated by his success in putting down Monmouth's rebellion, the king was less careful to conceal the purpose which he had in view. The army was filled with papists, and persons of the same persuasion were promoted to the highest offices in the state. The Church was next attacked in the universities, and on the death of the president of Magdalene College (Oxford), the fellows were commanded to elect one Anthony Farmer, a man of dissolute character, who had become a proselyte to the Church of Rome. The college disregarded this mandate, and elected Mr. Hough as their president. For this disobedience, twenty-five of the fellows, with Hough himself, who afterwards became Bishop of Worcester, were expelled from the university. The king issued an order in council, that a declaration which he had put forth in favour of liberty of conscience, should be read in all churches. Seven^s of the bishops refused to

^s Sancroft, archbishop of Canterbury; Lloyd, bishop of St. Asaph; Turner, bishop of Ely; Lake, bishop of Chichester; Ken, bishop of

obey this proclamation, and presented a petition to the king. James sent them to the Tower, and caused them to be prosecuted for sedition. As they were conducted down the river, the banks were lined with people, who fell on their knees, and implored the blessing of their spiritual fathers, who thus suffered for the truth. "The demeanour of the seven prelates strengthened the interest which their situation excited. On the evening of the Black Friday, as it was called, on which they were committed, they reached their prison just at the hour of Divine service. They instantly hastened to the chapel. It chanced that in the Second Lesson were these words: 'In all things approving ourselves as the ministers of God, in much patience, in afflictions, in distresses, in stripes, in imprisonments.' All zealous churchmen were delighted by this coincidence, and remembered how much comfort a similar coincidence had given, near forty years before, to Charles the First, at the time of his death⁶." Notwithstanding the efforts of the court, the bishops were acquitted on their trial; and the acclamations of the people at their escape reached even to the camp at Hounslow, where the king was dining in the tent of Lord Feversham. Inquiring the cause of the shouts which he heard, he was told that they were nothing but the acclamations of the people at the acquittal of the bishops. "Call you that nothing?" said the king; "but so much the worse for them."

The birth of a Prince of Wales (June 10, 1688) seems to have convinced the principal people in the country, that it was now necessary to act with energy, if the Church and liberties of England were to be preserved. An invitation was sent to William Prince of Orange, (the Stadtholder, and chief officer of the government of the Dutch provinces,) who was the son-in-law of James, as well as the grandson of Charles I., to request his aid in preserving the religion and laws of the land from the danger which threatened them. Every thing was prepared for the arrival of the prince, before James was aware of the estrangement of his people. On learning it, he endeavoured to regain their affections by

Bath and Wells; White, bishop of Peterborough; Trelawney, bishop of Bristol.

⁶ Macaulay, *Hist. of England*, vol. ii. p. 367.

concessions which came too late. William landed in Torbay, Nov. 4, and was soon joined by the principal persons in the kingdom; among others, by the Princess Anne. When James was told of her flight, he exclaimed, "God help me! my own children are forsaking me." Finding himself unable to offer any effectual resistance, he tried to escape from the kingdom; but was recognized at Feversham, and brought back to London; where the people, who had so lately regarded him with mistrust, received him with acclamations. William ordered him to reside at Rochester, from which place he was able again to embark for France; and was cordially received by Louis XIV., who assigned him the palace of St. Germain's as a residence.

On the king's flight a convention was assembled, by which it was declared that James had abdicated the government; and the crown was offered to William and Mary his wife, the daughter of James, jointly: They were proclaimed king and queen; but the royal power was declared to belong exclusively to William. In the event of their leaving no issue, the succession was settled on the Princess Anne and her children.

Such is the event which is known in history as the English Revolution. It resulted from the deep attachment of the English to their national Church and civil liberties; and it is impossible to look back on it without admiring the calmness and moderation with which the great men who brought about this change in the government accomplished their purpose.

CHAPTER XXXV.

WILLIAM III. AND MARY II.

William III. Born at the Hague. Buried in Westminster Abbey. Mary II. Born at St. James's. Buried in Westminster Abbey. Reigned (together) 5 years. From A.D. 1689 to A.D. 1694. William III. (alone) reigned 8 years. From A.D. 1694 to A.D. 1702.

Archbishops of Canterbury.

John Tillotson, A.D. 1691—1694. | Thomas Tenison, A.D. 1694—1715.

THE prince who thus mounted the throne of England was one of the greatest men of the age. He had steadily opposed the ambitious designs of the King of France; and was

an able, though not often a successful general. He had a strong sense of religious duty, and was upright, and generally correct in his conduct; though not devoid of faults from which his high principles ought to have induced him to abstain. He was, however, tenderly attached to his queen, who conducted herself with much piety and wisdom in the difficult duties which she had to discharge. William shared the cold and phlegmatic character which is usually ascribed to his countrymen; and his dry and unpleasant manners contrasted unfavourably with that winning affability, to which the English had been accustomed in Charles, and which had engaged their affection to that monarch notwithstanding his many faults.

The limits of the royal prerogative were now defined and settled by the *Bill of Rights*, to which William gave his assent; embodying most of the points for which, even from the days of the Plantagenets, the country had been contending. The administration was in the hands of the Whigs, of whom the Earl of Shrewsbury, Lord Danby, and John Somers, were the chief. Danby, who had been minister to Charles II., and was impeached in that reign, became Duke of Leeds; and Somers was afterwards made Earl Somers and lord chancellor.

The oath of allegiance to William, which was now imposed, was declined by Archbishop Sancroft and several of the bishops, some of whom were the same men who had gone to the Tower rather than give way to James. These prelates were deprived of their sees; and many of the clergy for the same reason lost their benefices. This party among the clergy were called non-jurors¹. However we may lament this division in the ecclesiastical body at such a time, it is impossible not to respect the conscientious and disinterested conduct of these prelates, who were content to suffer imprisonment for their resistance to James's illegal measures, and yet resigned their sees, rather than violate the oath of allegiance to that prince by which they

¹ The non-juring bishops were, Sancroft, archbishop of Canterbury; Lloyd, bishop of Norwich; Turner, bishop of Ely; Frampton, bishop of Gloucester; Ken, bishop of Bath and Wells; White, bishop of Peterborough. They were deprived. Thomas, bishop of Worcester, and Lake, bishop of Chichester, were non-jurors also, but died before they could be deprived.

still thought themselves bound. Dr. Tillotson was made archbishop of Canterbury, and the see of Salisbury was conferred upon Dr. Burnet. The latter prelate became the historian of his own times. He was a man of active and busy disposition, and had some ability; but his contemporaries do not speak highly either of his political integrity, or of his character as a divine.

The crown of Scotland was settled on William and Mary by a Scottish convention. An insurrection in the Highlands, in favour of James, was headed by Lord Dundee, who gained a victory at the pass of Killiecrankie; but was killed in the battle, and his troops dispersed. Episcopacy now ceased to be recognized by the State in Scotland: the Presbyterian system became established as the general persuasion of that nation; and the cathedrals and parish churches were put into the hands of the Presbyterians. But the succession of bishops was still preserved amongst the remnant who valued that institution, and it survived, as we shall see, even severer trials which followed. It may here be mentioned, that the suppression of disaffection in the Highlands was attended some little time afterwards by an act of cruelty which has left a stain on William's memory. This was a massacre of the clan or family of M'Donald in the vale of Glenco. The king too hastily signed a paper to authorize the extermination of "that set of thieves," as he denominated the inhabitants of that valley, in his ignorance of the Highland character and system of clanship. The execution of this order was entrusted to M'Donald's hereditary enemy, and was effected with great treachery and cruelty. The party came in the guise of friendship, and was hospitably entertained by M'Donald for fifteen days, at the close of which a complete massacre of his family took place. Children were butchered as they clung to the knees of the soldiers, and M'Donald was shot in the arms of his wife, who herself died in a state of distraction.

In Ireland the government of William was opposed with much determination. The people of that island were then, as now, generally members of the Church of Rome, and they received James, who landed at Kinsale (March 12, 1689), as their lawful king. In Ulster only could those who opposed Popery make head against him; and the city of Lon-

donderry was distinguished by its heroic defence, and refusal to surrender, notwithstanding the sufferings of the people for want of food. The city was at length relieved by a supply of provisions from England, and James was compelled to raise the siege.

William crossed into Ireland with an army composed in great measure of Dutch troops, and at the battle of the Boyne (which James witnessed from a neighbouring eminence) completely overthrew that prince, who again withdrew to France. The war in Ireland was terminated by the reduction of Limerick, in 1691, when about 12,000 Irish passed over to France, and were taken into the pay of Louis.

The king throughout his reign employed his great increase of power in opposing the designs of the French monarch, and was continually engaged in wars in Flanders. A powerful fleet which James had collected by the aid of Louis, was defeated in a great battle at La Hogue, in 1692; and in 1695 the king succeeded in taking the city of Namur in the face of a French army of 100,000 men; an action by which he greatly enhanced his reputation. A peace, called the Peace of Ryswick, was concluded in 1697; and it was to discharge the expenses incurred in the war thus terminated, that money was first systematically borrowed by parliament; and the National Debt, which has been increasing ever since that time, first rose into importance. As the queen had died in 1694, and William had no children, the Princess Anne was heir by law to the crown. She had had several children, of whom the Duke of Gloucester only survived; and on the death of this young prince it became necessary to provide again for the succession by some legislative measure. The next heir of the ancient royal blood, not disabled by belonging to the Church of Rome, was Sophia, electress of Hanover, the daughter of the Queen of Bohemia, and therefore a grandchild of James I. An act called *The Act of Settlement* was passed, by which the crown was settled on this princess and her descendants, on the condition that they should not be members of the Church of Rome.

Though peace had been concluded with France, the affairs of Spain were likely to lead to a renewal of the war. Charles IV. of Spain had died without issue; and the chief

competitors for the crown were Charles, archduke of Austria, and Philip, a grandson of the French king. These princes were both descended from daughters of the royal house of Spain; and the states of Europe were generally favourable to the succession of Charles, from their mistrust of Louis XIV., and their fear of seeing the crowns of Spain and France on the same head. Louis, however, succeeded in obtaining from William a reluctant recognition of Philip as king of Spain; but when, on the death of James (which occurred in 1701), the court of France acknowledged the son of that prince as king of England, so strong a feeling of indignation was excited throughout the country, that large sums were placed at William's disposal for a renewal of the war. A bill was passed, requiring all persons to abjure the Pretender, (as the son of James was called,) and to swear allegiance to William, and his heirs, according to the Act of Settlement.

In the midst of this loyalty an accident occurred which deprived the nation of its king, at the time when, perhaps, he was more popular than at any former period. His horse fell with him as he was riding at Hampton Court, where he generally resided. His collar-bone was broken, and he died (March 8, 1702) of the fever which ensued on that injury. Some plots had been formed for the assassination of William during the latter years of his reign, and Sir John Fenwick was beheaded for his concern in the principal of these conspiracies. The management of affairs had latterly been entrusted to the Tories, and Lord Godolphin was treasurer at the time of William's death.

The bishops and clergy were not quite so devoted to their high calling as they should have been, nor was their office generally respected, during this and the two succeeding reigns. But it is worth mentioning that just before William's death the Church began in some sort to recognize its duty of missions to those who, though within her own borders, were heathens, or worse, and to the heathen in her foreign dependencies. Hence the origin of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, and of the Society for Propagating the Gospel in Foreign Parts. Never was the former of these works more necessary. To the over-strictness of the Puritans, and the excesses of Charles II.'s court and time, had succeeded a disregard

of the very appearance of religion, and a downright spirit of profaneness. The questions now asked were not, what religion is true? or, what interpretation of Scripture is correct? but, is any religion at all true? is Scripture to be revered as God's word? Atheism denied the existence of a God; Deism admitted a God of nature, but not a God of Scripture; Arianism and Socinianism denied the Supreme Deity of the Saviour, the one asserting Him only to be a sort of God, the other declaring Him to be a mere man. This began to be called *freethinking*; and so far from being rebuked, became at length even fashionable. Such a state of things moved the pity and zeal of a few pious members of the Church, and they became the originators of the Societies to which we have alluded. Eventually what were private undertakings were adopted as the organs of the Church.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

ANNE.

Born at St. James's. Buried in Westminster Abbey. Reigned 12 years. From A.D. 1702 to A.D. 1714.

Archbishop of Canterbury.

Thomas Tenison, A.D. 1694—1715.

THE constitution of England had now in great measure assumed the form and character which it still presents. Parliaments were regularly convoked, and the maxim was gradually admitted, that as the ministers of the crown are responsible for the advice which they give to the sovereign, so the sovereign is bound to defer to their advice while they continue in office. In the choice of ministers the will of the sovereign was now greatly influenced by the preponderance in the House of Commons of either of the two parties which are still known as the Whigs and the Tories. The Tories are generally favourable to the monarchical principle in the constitution, and to the full recognition of the Church as the guardian and dispenser of the national religion. The Whigs are more disposed to distrust the executive government, and to contend for a greater regard to the will and voice of the people on the part of the rulers, both in Church and State.

Queen Anne was strongly inclined to favour the Tory party; but Lady Marlborough, by whom she was greatly influenced, was attached to the principles of the Whigs: and though the ministry was at first chosen chiefly from the Tories, it was not long before the Whigs obtained many of the principal offices. The Earls of Godolphin and Marlborough, who acted at first with the Tories, appear to have endeavoured to hold the balance between the two parties; but in the course of the war, which was declared soon after the queen's accession, they became more identified with the Whigs.

This was the war for which the late king had made preparations at the time of his death. It is called the war of the Spanish succession: but was carried on in Flanders and Germany, as well as in Spain. England acted in alliance with the other European states, in support of the Archduke Charles; while the King of France upheld the cause of his grandson Philip. The allied armies were commanded by the earl, who was soon created Duke of Marlborough; and Prince Eugene, of the house of Savoy, was at the head of a chief division of the forces. In this war, which lasted from 1702 to 1712, the duke completely humbled the pride of France, and acquired for himself and his country a degree of military glory which has never been surpassed; unless by that success with which Divine Providence has in our own age been pleased to crown the efforts of a still greater man, the Duke of Wellington. The first battle in which Marlborough showed himself so consummate a warrior, was at Blenheim, in Germany, in 1704; and in memory of the great victory which he gained, the manor of Woodstock was settled on him and his heirs; and a magnificent mansion, called Blenheim Palace, was built for him at the expense of the nation. The next great victory was at Ramillies, in 1706, against Marshal Villeroy; and its result was the submission of Brabant to the archduke. In 1708 the battle of Oudenarde gave the allies possession of French Flanders; and the following year was remarkable for the bloody battle of Malplaquet, and the surrender of the town of Mons. In 1711, Marlborough's last campaign opened a passage into the heart of France; and had the war been carried on, the allies would probably have become masters of Paris. Early in the war a naval

armament, under Sir George Rooke, was sent to the coasts of Spain, and the strong fortress of Gibraltar, which has ever since remained in the hands of the English, was taken. English troops distinguished themselves in Spain, under the Earl of Peterborough, a nobleman of romantic character and chivalrous courage. At the siege of Barcelona he greatly signalized himself, and all Catalonia and Valencia rose in favour of Charles; but a battle was gained over the allies at Almanza (1707) by the Duke of Berwick, which restored the cause of Philip. Charles again got the advantage over his rival at Zaragoza, in 1710, where the English troops were commanded by General Stanhope; but it had become plain that the feeling of the Spanish nation was favourable to Philip, and the succession of Charles to the imperial crown of Germany changed the views of all who were engaged in the contest.

England derived little advantage from the victories of Marlborough, beyond the renown which they conferred upon the country; and the people had become generally desirous of peace. The influence of the Duchess of Marlborough over the queen had been weakened, not only by the haughtiness of her own temper, but by the intrigues of Mrs. Masham, a lady whom she had herself introduced to Anne, and who was attached to the Tory party, at the head of which were Harley, afterwards Earl of Oxford, and St. John, afterwards Lord Bolingbroke. The feeling of the people against the Whigs was exasperated by their imprudent prosecution of one Dr. Sacheverell, for preaching in favour of unlimited obedience to the sovereign; and Anne determined to place Harley and St. John at the head of the government. A peace¹ was concluded at Utrecht (1713) by these ministers, which was reckoned highly dishonourable to this country, as most of the objects were abandoned for which so much blood and treasure had been expended. Marlborough himself was unjustly accused of peculation, and withdrew for a time to the continent.

The most important domestic measure of this reign was the union of the legislatures of England and Scotland. Great

¹ But peace at any sacrifice was considered a great blessing. July 7th, 1713, was appointed by Queen Anne as a day of public thanksgiving, and both Houses of Parliament made a solemn procession to St. Paul's Cathedral.

inconvenience had resulted from the government of two kingdoms so closely connected, by legislative bodies which were independent of each other; and by an act which received the royal assent, May 1, 1707, the two kingdoms were incorporated into one, to be called GREAT BRITAIN. The union was greatly opposed at the time by the Scottish nation, which is now convinced of the important advantages it has derived from this measure. Scotland retained her own laws, and her own presbyterian form of religion.

Queen Anne was always popular with her subjects; and her name is still familiarly spoken of as "good Queen Anne." She was not, indeed, possessed of shining talents, and was too much governed by female favourites in her household. But she was exemplary as a wife and mother, and was a great benefactress to the Church, to which she was sincerely attached. In particular, she did what she could to restore to the Church what had been taken from it at the time of the Reformation. Charles I. had determined upon a similar measure, and had confided his design to Sheldon, who succeeded Juxon on the throne of Canterbury; but death stopped his performance of his wish. His son could do little more than restore what the Rebellion had violently torn away: but Anne carried out successfully a measure of the following description. The first-fruits, which were originally an exaction of the Pope from every new incumbent of a benefice, had been assumed by the crown. These the queen settled on a corporation for the augmentation of small livings. The fund so raised and applied is called Queen Anne's Bounty.

The reign of Anne was one of the most brilliant periods of English literature. Milton and Dryden, indeed, belong to the latter half of the preceding century; but Pope, and Addison, and Swift, with many other writers of much note, gave lustre to the reign of Anne. Sir Isaac Newton, who had published his great work on the system of the universe in the reign of William III., did not die till 1727. The queen's last years were much embittered by the quarrels of Harley and St. John, the ministers for whom she had sacrificed the Duke of Marlborough. She died Aug. 1, 1714, in the forty-ninth year of her life, and the Elector of Hanover was proclaimed king as George I. Anne was the last sovereign of the house of Stuart.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

GEORGE I.

*Born at Hanover. Buried at Hanover. Reigned 13 years.
From A.D. 1714 to A.D. 1727.*

Archbishop of Canterbury.
William Wake, A.D. 1715—1737.

THE new king, who was the son of the Electress Sophia, landed at Greenwich, Sept. 18, 1714. He was a stranger to the language and manners of England, and put himself into the hands of the Whig party; which seems to have enjoyed its triumph with too vindictive a temper against its political rivals. The Earl of Oxford was impeached for his share in the treaty of Utrecht, and kept in prison for about two years. He was then set at liberty, as his prosecutors found that there was not sufficient ground for the charges against him. The Lords Ormond and Bolingbroke withdrew to the continent, and were attainted. They repaired to the court of the Pretender, who was preparing an effort for the overthrow of the new government.

The standard of this prince was raised in the Highlands by the Earl of Mar, in 1715; and he was proclaimed as James III., in the north of England, by the Earl of Derwentwater and Mr. Forster; who were joined by the Scottish Lords Wintoun, Nithisdale, Carnwarth, and Kenmuir. Being reinforced by a body of Highlanders, they advanced to Preston in Lancashire, where they were attacked by the royal forces, and obliged to surrender at discretion. The very same day a battle was fought between Mar and the Duke of Argyle at Sheriff-Muir, near Dumblane, in which the latter had the advantage; and the Pretender, who had landed in Scotland, found it necessary to retrace his course, and reached France in safety, with the Lords Mar, Melford, and others. Of the noblemen who surrendered at Preston, Derwentwater, Kenmuir, and Wintoun were beheaded; Nithisdale escaped in women's clothes, brought by his wife the night before the day appointed for his execution: the lives of the rest were spared.

The legal duration of parliaments had been fixed by law to the term of three years ; and as the ministers thought it unsafe to hazard a general election in the unsettled state of the country, a bill was brought in to extend the duration of parliaments to seven years ; which has since remained the legal period between one general election and another, though in practice the term has seldom exceeded six years. This bill, which is called the Septennial Bill, received the high approbation of Lord Somers, the great constitutional lawyer.

The death of Louis XIV., in 1715, occasioned a long regency in France, under the Duke of Orleans, which was favourable to the continuance of peace ; and the reign of George I. is unmarked by any foreign transactions of much importance. The king entered into alliance with the Regent of France, in order to oppose the ambitious designs of Cardinal Alberoni, at that time chief minister in Spain : and an English fleet, under Sir G. Byng, was sent (1718) to the Mediterranean, where it totally destroyed the Spanish fleet of twenty-seven sail of the line. An expedition under Admiral Hosier (1725) to the coast of Spanish America was less successful ; but the Spaniards, on their part, failed in an attempt to recover the fortress of Gibraltar.

In England an amazing amount of distress was occasioned in the year 1720, by the failure of a scheme, which is usually known as the South Sea Bubble.

It was noticed in the reign of William III. that parliament determined to raise money on the public account by means of loans. This money had been borrowed of various mercantile companies ; and a proposal was made to government by the South Sea Company, to pay off all their various debts, and thus become the sole national creditor. The government was to pay a lower rate of interest than before ; and the South Sea Company was to raise the money for thus buying up the national debts, by opening a subscription to a scheme for carrying on a trade in the South Sea, of the profits of which a most extravagant notion was indulged. People came in crowds to subscribe, and many ventured all they had. The desire to obtain shares was such, that the original purchasers sold them for ten times as much as they had given. In a few months it was found

that the whole scheme was a delusion. Thousands of families were reduced to beggary, and the trade of the country received a shock from which it did not quickly recover.

Notwithstanding the ease with which the Earl of Mar's rebellion had been put down, the Jacobites (or adherents of the Pretender) continued their machinations in his favour. In these designs Atterbury, bishop of Rochester, was supposed to be implicated; and he was, accordingly, deprived by the civil power of his see, and banished, in 1723. He was a man of much genius and learning, and had laboured to restore the convocation to its due place in the constitution; but the day of the power of that assembly had passed away. The beginning of its decline was the abandonment of the privilege of self-taxation by the Clergy in the time of Charles II.; but it survived as a body deliberating on the spiritual affairs of the Church until 1717. In that year, when it seemed likely that some difference would arise between the Upper House, or House of Bishops, and the Lower House, concerning a work of Hoadley, bishop of Bangor, it was prorogued, without being permitted to come to a decision. The Houses still meet at the commencement of every Parliament, but cannot proceed to act without the royal permission, which, for various reasons, has not been of late years accorded.

It has been already remarked that we cannot speak highly of the state of the Church generally during this reign. The bishoprics and other preferments were often regarded rather as political rewards than as offices of grave and solemn responsibility. But this statement admits some exceptions.

George had married the Princess Sophia of Zell; but his consort had long been confined at Alden, on a charge generally believed to be false. By this lady he was the father of the prince who succeeded him, and also of a daughter, married to the King of Prussia. His own court was disgraced by his connexion with a person whom he created Duchess of Kendal; nor was this the only instance of his laxity of principle in so important a part of his moral and religious duty. In 1727, the king set out on his usual visit to Hanover; but was taken ill, and died in his carriage, near Osnaburg, on the 11th of June. He was, on the whole, less unpopular with his English subjects than might have

been expected, from his foreign origin, and his predilection for Hanover.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

GEORGE II.

Born at Hanover. Buried in Westminster Abbey. Reigned 33 years. From A.D. 1727 to A.D. 1760.

Archbishops of Canterbury.

William Wake, A.D. 1715—1737.	Matthew Hutton, A.D. 1757, 1758.
John Potter, A.D. 1737—1747.	Thomas Secker, A.D. 1758—1768.
Thomas Herring, A.D. 1747—1757.	

THE Prince of Wales, who succeeded his father as George II., was married to the Princess Caroline of Anspach, a lady of remarkable ability and discretion. To the time of her death (which occurred in 1737) she had considerable share in the government, especially during the king's frequent excursions to Hanover. It should also be mentioned that the Church is indebted, under God, to the discernment of Queen Caroline¹, for the advancement of Archbishop Secker, and of Bishop Butler, who was the author of the immortal work on "The Analogy of Natural and Revealed Religion to the Constitution and Course of Nature." At the time of the king's accession his eldest son Frederick, who then became Prince of Wales, was twenty years of age.

For a period of fifteen years, at the beginning of this reign, Sir Robert Walpole was the chief minister of the crown. He had been brought forward in the government in the late reign, and was a dexterous and successful minister. The kingdom enjoyed much tranquillity under his management of affairs, and such excitement as existed in the country found vent chiefly in parliamentary discussions on the national debt, and on the number of troops

¹ The personal piety of Queen Caroline has been much questioned; and it has been doubted whether she did not value Bishop Butler rather as an able and acute reasoner, than as a man of religion. It is certain that she declined on her death-bed to receive the Holy Eucharist from the hands of the Archbishop of Canterbury; but whatever she may have been, her general measures were favourable to the Church.

maintained as a standing army in time of peace. In these trials of party strength, Walpole was opposed by Pulteney, his chief political rival, who long afterwards became minister himself, and Earl of Bath.

A dispute which arose on commercial grounds led to a declaration of war with Spain, in 1739, and eventually to the resignation of Walpole, who was created Earl of Orford on his retirement from the ministry. This war was carried on in the West Indies with little success. In the course of it Commodore Anson made his celebrated voyage round the globe; being the first Englishman who had achieved that voyage since the time of Drake.

In 1742 the country was again engaged in a continental war; in which England espoused the cause of Maria Theresa, queen of Hungary, who had been deprived of part of her dominions by the unprincipled aggressions of Frederick, king of Prussia. Frederick was supported by France, and the King of England was bound to succour the Queen of Hungary by the terms of a treaty called the Pragmatic Sanction, which guaranteed to the heirs-general of the Emperor Charles the succession to all his dominions. The king himself took the command of the troops which were sent to co-operate with the Austrians in Flanders, and gained the advantage over the French in the battle of Dettingen, 1743. In this battle the king displayed great spirit and courage. His son, the Duke of Cumberland, was defeated by the French about two years afterwards in the battle of Fontenoy. No king of England has commanded an army in person since the battle of Dettingen.

The year 1745 was remarkable also for the chief effort of the friends of the exiled family to recover the crown of England for the descendants of the Stuarts. Charles Edward, the Pretender's eldest son, a young man of prepossessing manners and person, was sent to the Highlands of Scotland; having obtained a sum of money and the promise of assistance from the King of France. He was joined by several of the Highland clans, and through the misconduct of the royalist general, was able to march to Edinburgh. The city opened her gates to him, and his father was proclaimed king. He took up his residence in Holyrood-house, the ancient palace of his ancestors; and at the battle of Preston-pans, near Edinburgh, com-

pletely routed the troops sent against him under Sir John Cope. It was then resolved to march into England; and the young Chevalier de St. George (as the prince was generally called) advanced as far as Derby. Great consternation was felt in London: but division had already arisen among the Pretender's few adherents. He was joined by none of the English Jacobites; and found it necessary to give orders for a retreat to Scotland. He reached Carlisle without loss, and from thence proceeded to Glasgow. At Falkirk a gleam of success again shone upon his cause; but at the battle of Culloden, near Inverness, April 16, 1746, his army was hopelessly and completely routed. It is deeply to be lamented that this success of the lawful authority was afterwards disgraced by the most shocking cruelty. The young Chevalier had been joined by the Lords Strathallan, Lovat, Balmerino, Nairn, and others; of whom the greater number suffered on the scaffold. This severity was probably no more than was necessary; but the cruelties which were perpetrated in cold blood in the Highland valleys by the Duke of Cumberland's soldiers were disgraceful to him and to his cause.

The adventures of Charles Edward, after the battle of Culloden, remarkably resembled the perils which Charles II. encountered in his escape after the battle of Worcester, and were in the highest degree romantic and affecting. A reward of 30,000*l.* was set on the adventurer's head, and he was forced to assume every species of disguise. His secret was necessarily made known to many persons, but was kept with the most admirable fidelity, and he at length reached France in safety. Measures were adopted for preventing any similar revolt in the Highlands, by abolishing the power which the chieftains had possessed, of exercising a species of patriarchal sovereignty over their several clans. From this period we may consider that the hopes of the house of Stuart were completely crushed.

The outbreak of 1745 was the cause of much distress and hardship to those in Scotland who still adhered to their Bishops and episcopally ordained Clergy. Their communion had ever since the Revolution been suspected of Jacobite tendencies; and Acts had passed the Legislature on various occasions during the interval, of a discouraging character. Of the sovereigns who had suc-

cessively ruled, Anne had, perhaps, been the only one who had treated them with consideration. But in 1746 and 1748, Acts were passed which rendered the very profession of their creed, and much more the public exercise of divine worship in their chapels, dangerous and penal. Orders conferred by their Bishops were disallowed by the latter of these Acts. It is scarcely possible to imagine at the present day that such a Statute could have passed the British Legislature. But such was the political animosity then prevalent, that it was carried in the House of Commons with but little opposition. In the House of Lords it was carried also, but only by a majority of five. Not one of the English Bishops would support it; and some of them, as Sherlock, Secker, and Maddox², spoke strenuously against it. Thenceforth for forty-two years, the worshippers belonging to this persecuted body were obliged to celebrate their offices of religion with fear and trembling. Lofts of ruined stables, approachable only by trapdoors and moveable ladders, garrets and antiquated apartments, nay, even "dens and caves of the earth," were used as their places of assembling. In the words of the historian of their church, "the fact that their communion was not utterly extinguished before forty-two years of such darkness passed away, can only be ascribed to the power of principle co-operating with the sense of duty³."

A general peace was concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, and continued for some years. In 1756, however, a war broke out, which is known as the Seven Years' war, from the period of its duration. It arose from the ambitious designs of France in America.

The importance of the colonial possessions of France and England in the vast continent of North America had long been silently increasing; and the French, who were then masters of Canada to the north of the British colonies, as well as of Louisiana to the south, attempted to encroach on the intermediate states, which were then the territory of the British crown. Various acts of hostility had occurred in America before the war broke out in Europe,

² Sherlock was then Bishop of London, Secker, Bishop of Oxford, and Maddox, Bishop of Worcester.

³ Bishop Russell, "History of the Church in Scotland," vol. ii. p. 406.

where England acted with Prussia in alliance against France, which was supported by Austria, as well as by Russia and Sweden.

An expedition, under Admiral Byng, was sent to the Mediterranean, where the island of Minorca (which had belonged to England since the reign of Anne) was attacked by a French fleet. Byng acted with less spirit than might have been expected from a British admiral, and Minorca was wrested from the English. The admiral was brought to a court-martial, which was so much influenced by the public indignation against this unfortunate officer, that he was condemned and shot on the quarter-deck of the *St. George* at Portsmouth; a victim to the want of moral courage on the part of the king's advisers, who seem to have sacrificed him to the vindictive temper which had seized the public mind.

At this time Mr. Pitt (afterwards Earl of Chatham) was the most influential person in the ministry, in whose character the want of moral courage was certainly not an habitual defect. The Duke of Newcastle and his brother Henry Pelham had been ministers since the year 1744; but on the death of the latter (an upright and useful servant of the crown) the affairs of the country had been conducted with little energy or spirit till Mr. Pitt acquired the chief control in the government. The Duke of Newcastle and Mr. Fox (the secretary) had opposed the appointment of Pitt, but continued to hold office with him; and under his able direction, the year 1759 was remarkable for the success which was granted by Divine Providence to the British arms by land and sea.

In Germany, where the French had overrun the Hanoverian dominions, their army was routed by the English at the battle of Minden. In the Mediterranean, advantage was gained over the French fleet by Admiral Boscawen: and their naval forces in the Channel were defeated by Sir Edward Hawke. In India also the British arms were at this time successful.

It was in America, however, that the greatest triumph was gained. Quebec, the capital of Canada, was taken from the French under Montcalm, by General Wolfe, who fell in the very moment of victory. As he lay expiring, he heard the cry, "They fly," and asked, "Who fly?" On being

told, "The French," he said, "Then I die content." In the following year Montreal surrendered to General Amherst, and Canada has ever since been annexed to the British dominions.

On the 25th of October, 1760, the king died suddenly in his palace at Kensington, of an apoplectic attack. He had survived his eldest son, and was succeeded by his grandson, who now became George III., in the twenty-third year of his age.

Of the private character of George II., little that is favourable can be said. His manners are described as having been coarse, and his conversation sensual. His morals are known to have been most corrupt. Whatever was decent about his court for a part of his reign was attributable to his queen.

The Church did not exhibit many symptoms of amendment during so unpropitious a reign. Her preaching was without warmth; her services without order; her richer Clergy were frequently non-resident; and her Bishops were too much inclined to be politicians. Archbishop Secker, Bishop Butler, and the apostolical Bishop Wilson were glorious exceptions; but we speak of what things were generally. The result was, that dissenters multiplied, and earnest-minded men were tempted to seek in irregularly-constituted societies for that religious encouragement and that field for exertion which they could not find in the Church. This was the origin of the sects which owned Wesley and Whitfield as their leaders, and probably of many others besides; but, as we shall see in the next reign, the Church was thus urged to exertion, to the exercise of her powers, and to a sense of her high commission.

Pope, who lived till A.D. 1744, Thomson, Gray, Aken-side, the two Wartons, and Collins, are the chief poets of the era of George II. Hume and Robertson should be mentioned among its historians; Fielding and Richardson among its novelists. Painting could boast of Hogarth, Reynolds, and others; sculpture, of Rysbrach⁴, Roubiliac⁴, and Willis; engraving, of Strange and Bacon: and music attained, perhaps, its highest perfection under Handel⁴.

⁴ Rysbrach, Roubiliac, and Handel were foreigners by birth, but the fabric of their reputation was raised in England.

Architecture had not recovered the check it had received at the Reformation, and the vitiated Græco-Italian style, which had been sanctioned by Sir Christopher Wren. It had even degenerated since his day, as the construction of public buildings of that date too plainly proves. The greatest literary name of the period is that of Dr. Samuel Johnson: he lived till the 25th year of George III.

Blackfriars bridge was built during this reign, and various improvements were made in the arrangement of the streets of London.

The historical student should be apprised, that in the year 1751 an important alteration was sanctioned by Act of Parliament for regulating the commencement of the year, and for correcting the calendar as it was then in use. It had been usual up to that time in England for the year to begin on the 25th of March; but this practice was attended with various inconveniences, one of which was the uncertainty which it introduced into chronology. Part of each year was thus made to belong to its predecessor; for instance, the death of Charles I., which took place Jan. 30th, 1649, was made to have occurred on Jan. 30th, 1648. Hence the date of that occurrence had to be expressed thus, Jan. 30th, 16 $\frac{48}{49}$.

Besides this, England had hitherto adhered with great tenacity to what is generally called the Old Style of the calendar; that is, to the arrangement of the year as fixed by Julius Cæsar, and explained by Augustus. The greater part of the continent had adopted the New or Gregorian Style; and thus merchants and others experienced great difficulty in adjusting their commercial transactions to those of other nations. The difference in reckoning between the two Styles had now amounted to eleven days, so that the same day was at Rome or Paris the 13th of September, and at London the 2nd of that month, and so on. The cause of this variation was as follows. The Julian year was supposed to consist of 365 days 6 hours, and a day was thus formed every fourth year, which was inserted much in the same way as our 29th of February. In fact, however, six hours exceeded the real amount of surplus each year by 11' 12", the accumulation of which excess was found by Pope Gregory XIII., in 1582, to have caused ten more days to have been inserted than were necessary,

He recommended, therefore, that, in future, every first, second, and third hundredth year, should have no intercalated day (*i. e.* no 29th of February), and that to balance ten days, which had been wrongly inserted in times past, ten days should be omitted between the 4th and the 15th of October, 1582. Thus the years 1700, 1800, and 1900 were not to be leap-years, but the years 1600 and 2000 were to be leap-years, as before, and the 5th of October, 1582, was to be the 15th of October. These amendments were adopted at once in Italy, Spain, and Portugal, and very soon afterwards in France, and the parts of Switzerland, Germany, and the Low Countries which were connected with the Church of Rome. Other parts of Europe affected for some time to consider them as Romish innovations, and were slower in adopting them. England delayed doing so until 1751, when the difference amounted, as we have said, to eleven days. It now, 1851, amounts to twelve. Russia, and the parts of Europe connected with the Greek Church, still adhere to the Old Style.

To illustrate the difference at this moment, let us take a date. March 21st, 1851, New Style (N. S.), is, according to the Russian notation, March 9, 1850, Old Style (O. S.). It seems, at first sight, curious that prejudice should have run so strongly against a mere astronomical arrangement, as if it involved submission to Rome. In England people fancied they were deprived of eleven days of life, or eleven days' profits of business; and it was not unfrequent for King George's ministers to be saluted on public occasions with the cry, "Give us back our eleven days!" For this, however, they cared very little. They carried a reform through, which in Queen Elizabeth's time⁵ could not be effected. In 1751 it was enacted that the eleven days should be struck out between the 2nd and the 14th of September of the year 1752, and that the year 1753 should commence on the 1st of January. The other Gregorian arrangements were sanctioned at the same time.

⁵ A Bill was read the first time in the House of Lords on the 16th of March, 1584, and a second time on the 18th of that month, to "give Her Majesty authority to alter or new-make a Calendar according to the Calendar used in other countries." But no more was heard of it. On this and other curious points connected with the Calendar, the student is referred to Sir Harris Nicolas's "Chronology of History."

CHAPTER XXXIX.

GEORGE III.

PERIOD OF THE AMERICAN WAR. 1760—1789.

*Born at Norfolk House, St. James's. Buried at Windsor.
Reigned 60 years. From A.D. 1760 to A.D. 1820.*

Archbishops of Canterbury.

Thomas Secker, A.D. 1768—1768.	John Moore, A.D. 1783—1805.
Frederick Cornwallis, A.D. 1768—1783.	Charles Manners Sutton, A.D. 1805—1828.

FEW princes have ever succeeded to a crown under more favourable circumstances than those which marked the accession of George III. Born and educated in England, he had not to contend with that dislike of foreigners for which the English have generally been remarkable. He was a man of sound moral and religious principles, and his sterling worth was appreciated by the great body of the intelligent people which he was called to govern. The hopes of the exiled family were now extinct. The influence of British character and power had at no time been more successfully exerted in all parts of the world. The history of England, instead of being (as formerly) the narrative of petty struggles between the feudal sovereign and his powerful vassals, now embraced the transactions of mighty empires in the East and West, with which the interests of British commerce and British ascendancy were closely interwoven.

The king was also happy in uniting himself to a princess of his own high character and principles. His marriage with the Princess Charlotte of Mecklenburgh Strelitz took place in 1761; and during his long reign (the longest in our annals) the nation had the unspeakable blessing of the example of a pure and virtuous court. The king had been educated in high notions of his royal prerogative, and was somewhat unbending in his opinions. He was kind of heart and courteous in manner; and as his personal character contributed in no small degree to preserve his kingdom from the revolutionary principles which overthrew all that was sacred in France, so his memory will ever be cherished by Englishmen with affection and veneration.

The war continued for three years after his accession; and as a treaty, called the "Family Compact," had been secretly arranged between the French and Spanish courts, it became necessary to widen the war by proceeding to hostile measures against Spain. This resolution not having been taken so soon as Mr. Pitt advised it, he resigned his situation as minister. He was again in office for a short time, when he was created Earl of Chatham. He was now succeeded by Lord Bute, a personal friend of the king.

The British arms were eminently successful in the West Indies, and an honourable peace (called the peace of Fontainebleau) was signed at Paris in 1763; by which England was to retain Canada, with many of the West Indian islands that had belonged to France and Spain. The Floridas also were ceded to Great Britain by Spain; and divers advantages were also secured to her in the East Indies.

As the growth of British power in the East was at this time rapidly advancing, it may be well in this place to describe its first origin. In the latter part of Elizabeth's reign a charter was granted to a company of merchants for the trade to India, which was then chiefly engrossed by the Portuguese. They established a settlement at Surat on the western coast of India, in 1612; and some years after, another at Madras, on the Coromandel coast; and one also at Calcutta, on the river Hooghly, in Bengal. Charles II. gave them the Island of Bombay, which he received in dower with his queen, and the isle of St. Helena in the Atlantic. The Portuguese by degrees lost much of the power which they had possessed in India, but the French and the Dutch established factories very similar to the English settlements. The vast continent of India was then governed by various native princes, who were often only nominally dependent on the emperor at Delhi, the successor to the Great Mogul.

These distant possessions of the several European states began, in process of time, to be involved in the wars which took place in Europe; and as the native princes were unavoidably engaged in these contests as allies of one party or the other, opportunities were gradually offered to the Europeans for territorial conquest and encroachment. The French were among the first to avail themselves of these

opportunities, and the English found it necessary to follow the same course, in order to maintain their own footing. The person who did more than any other to counteract the influence of the French, and to establish an Anglo-Indian empire, was Robert Clive, who afterwards became Lord Clive. The district in which Madras is situated was the scene of his first successes ; but the capture of Calcutta by a native prince (1756) was the occasion of his being called to Bengal, which soon became the chief seat of British empire. At this capture of Calcutta the most horrible cruelties were practised on the English ; of whom one hundred and forty-six persons were confined in a small room, twenty feet square, called the Black-hole ; and after a night of unexampled horrors twenty three only were found alive in the morning. On Clive's arrival the face of affairs was changed ; and after sundry transactions, an engagement took place at Plassey (1757) between the army of the nabob (which is a frequent title of the native princes) and the British troops, in which the latter were completely successful. This battle decided the fate of the British in India : and at the close of the seven years' war, it was plain that the British interests in the East were becoming too gigantic to be managed by a private company, without the control of the king's government. Some years, however, elapsed before any measure was taken to meet this emergency ; and in the interval the Anglo-Indian empire had extended itself with rapid strides under Lord Clive and Warren Hastings, who became the first governor-general. Hastings was impeached by the House of Commons in 1788, on a charge of cruelty and oppression in his government of India. The trial was prolonged till 1795, when judgment was given in his favour.

Soon after the peace of Fontainebleau, Lord Bute resigned his office. For five or six years no ministry could be formed that enjoyed to any great degree the confidence of king or people, and the king's person and government were assailed by many scurrilous writers, especially by a demagogue named Wilkes, and by a person who wrote with much power under the name of Junius. Mr. Grenville, Lord Rockingham, and the Duke of Grafton, were successively prime ministers. At length Lord North was

placed (1770) at the head of the government; and his administration lasted during twelve of the most eventful years in the English history.

With a view to relieve the people of Great Britain from part of the burden of the taxes, it had been resolved by the ministry to tax the North American colonies; and in 1761 an act was passed to impose stamp duties upon them. This act was received in America with the greatest indignation. The colonists contended that as they were not represented in the imperial parliament, it was beyond the power of that assembly to impose taxes upon them. The act was repealed, but its principle was not abandoned; and in 1767 a tax was laid on tea and other articles imported into the North American colonies. Lord North determined to levy only the tax on tea; forgetting that it was not the amount of the duties which had occasioned all the ferment, but the principle of taxation adopted by the English government. The people of Boston in New England resisted the attempt to levy this obnoxious tax. In order to punish them, an act was passed to impose restrictions on their commerce, and troops were sent to carry it into execution. The debates in parliament occasioned by this question were remarkable for the eloquence of Edmund Burke, Charles James Fox, and several other distinguished orators.

A congress of deputies from the several states now met at Philadelphia, and published a declaration of their resolution to defend their rights. The first engagement in this unhappy contest between the mother-country and her American provinces occurred (1775) at Lexington near Boston. The colonists came off with success, but were worsted at the battle of Bunker's-hill, near the same place, shortly afterwards.

Thirteen of the States, meantime, had formed themselves into an union, to be governed by delegates sent to the congress. Canada and Nova Scotia remained faithful to the mother-country. General Washington was appointed commander-in-chief of the colonial forces, while Lord Cornwallis and General Howe were sent from England to bring them to submission. On July 4, 1776, a Declaration of Independence was put forth; but, notwithstanding the ability shown by Washington, and the courage of the undisciplined

colonists, the result of the war was favourable in general to England. It seems likely that its issue would have been different, but for the assistance which the colonists received from France. In the year 1777 nearly six thousand British soldiers under General Burgoyne were forced to lay down their arms at Saratoga; and in 1778 the court of France acknowledged the independence of the United States, and sent troops for their support. The example of France was soon followed by Spain; and the Dutch were perfidious enough to join the league against England.

An attempt was made in parliament to terminate the war by withdrawing the troops from America. The great Lord Chatham was brought from a sick bed to raise his voice against this proposal. He had opposed the measures which led to the war, but now protested against yielding to the dread of France. While engaged in the debate he sank down in a fit, and was carried from the house, apparently lifeless. He expired within a few days of this remarkable scene¹.

No very striking event occurred for a year or two; but in 1781 Lord Cornwallis, with seven thousand men, was forced to surrender to General Washington; and it became evident that the independence of the colonies must be acknowledged. Lord North retired from the government, and a ministry was formed under Lord Rockingham: but on the death of that nobleman a coalition took place between Lord North and Mr. Fox under the Duke of Portland, which was no less offensive to the whole nation than to the king, as these statesmen had been bitterly opposed to each other. Treaties of peace were now signed with America as well as with France and Spain (1783). It was some consolation to this country that the naval superiority of England had been maintained by Admiral Rodney in many brilliant engagements, and that the siege of Gibraltar by the united armaments of France and Spain had been baffled by the skill and bravery of General Elliot, who was made Lord Heathfield.

The appointment of Fox to office under these circumstances was scarcely endured by the king or country; and the fate of this ministry was sealed by the defeat of a

¹ The sudden illness of Lord Chatham is the subject of Copley's celebrated picture in the National Gallery.

bill for the regulation of Indian affairs. The effect of this bill would have been to perpetuate the power of the minister by the immense amount of patronage which it would have placed at his disposal.

The king then entrusted the government to William Pitt, a son of the great Lord Chatham; who, though only twenty-three years of age, had already held an important office. This extraordinary man succeeded (after sustaining many defeats in the House of Commons) in gaining the confidence of the country, and was at the head of affairs, with only one interruption, for the remainder of his life. He introduced an Indian bill of a more moderate character than that of Mr. Fox; by which the interests of that vast empire are entrusted to a board of control in connexion with the directors of the East India Company. His financial measures were highly beneficial to the country, which enjoyed several years of repose.

In the year 1788 the king was seized with a disorder of mind, which rendered the appointment of a regent necessary. This necessity gave rise to much discussion; but to the great joy of the nation his majesty recovered, after having been incapable for some months of attending to public affairs. The king returned public thanks to Almighty God for his restoration to health, at St. Paul's Cathedral, on the 23rd of April, 1789.

In reflecting on the separation of the American colonies from the mother-country, we may observe that, although the means by which their independence was effected are much to be regretted, the result has proved hitherto beneficial to both countries. The commerce of England has been much greater with that country since it became independent, than in its colonial state; and the United States have rapidly increased in prosperity. It may, however, be doubted whether the republican institutions, under which they exist, will eventually perpetuate their greatness as a nation.

Another observation, also, is necessarily forced upon us in reviewing the separation of England and America. Whatever the result may have been, the occurrence itself was felt at the time to be a disgrace to England, and a dismemberment of her Empire. Now did not England deserve such humiliation as a punishment for neglecting

to make proper spiritual provision for her colonies? In the reign of George II., Archbishop Secker had attempted to prevail on the English Government to permit Bishops to be appointed for America, but without success; and in 1771 a petition from twelve American priests, ordained in England, praying that a Bishop might be sent out to them, was also rejected. It is true that clergymen were to be found scattered over the vast transatlantic continent, but there was no chief pastor, to confirm, to ordain, to have the chief authority, "to be an example of believers, in word, in conversation, in charity, in spirit, in faith, in purity." Under these disadvantages, therefore, it was not surprising that the Americans, many of whom were descendants of English puritans, forgot their duty to Church and State. Of the Church they had scarce the shadow—and the State denied them any thing more. We have now learned, it is to be hoped, our duty to our colonies somewhat better; but much, very much, still remains to be done.

It is gratifying, however, to find that after the separation between the two countries America renewed her efforts for episcopacy. In 1784, Samuel Seabury, upon whom the University at Oxford had conferred the honorary degree of Doctor in Divinity, was sent over to England by the clergy of Connecticut, to be consecrated Bishop. But England was not to have the honour of sending out the first Bishop to America. Difficulties occurred in reference to the oaths required of every one who is raised to the episcopate in England. A long delay seemed probable, and Dr. Seabury was recommended to apply to the Scottish Bishops, who were not confined by similar restrictions. Moore, archbishop of Canterbury, was favourable to such an application, and Dr. Seabury was accordingly consecrated by Kilgour, bishop of Aberdeen, and two other Scottish Bishops, Nov. 14, 1784. Within seven years of this date three more Bishops² were consecrated for America by English Bishops; and from them and Bishop Seabury the present American episcopate is derived.

The assistance thus given by the Scottish Bishops to America was incidentally advantageous to the condi-

² Dr. White and Dr. Provost, in 1787; Dr. Madison, in 1790.

tion of their own suffering communion. The attention of the English Bishops was forcibly directed to it, and various plans began to be agitated for the repeal of the severe laws of 1746 and 1748. The death of Charles Edward, in 1788, removed a great deal of the suspicion under which the episcopal body in Scotland had laboured; and in the same year, in nearly all their chapels, public prayers were offered up for King George III., as the rightful sovereign. (A brother of the young Pretender, Henry³, still survived, but he had received orders in the Church of Rome, and even the most zealous Jacobites felt doubtful of his title to their allegiance.)

At length, in 1792, an Act of Parliament was obtained, which granted complete toleration to the episcopal communion in Scotland. On this, various episcopal congregations, which up to that year had been ministered to by clergymen ordained in England and Ireland, gradually united themselves to their brethren, and, for the most part, acknowledged the authority of the Scottish Bishops. Within the last fourteen years⁴ an Act has been passed, recognizing a closer connexion between those of this communion and the Church of England. By it the Scottish Bishops and their Clergy are permitted to officiate occasionally in churches this side the border. (By the same Act, also, similar permission is accorded to the Bishops and Clergy of the American Church.) Before we quit this interesting subject, we may notice that the Scottish Episcopalians now (1852) possess a college at Glenalmond, in Perthshire, for the education of the clergy and laity of their body. The old Universities of Scotland are still in the hands of the Presbyterians.

In 1787, three years after Bishop Seabury's consecration and six months after Bishops White and Provost had received "the laying on of hands" from English Bishops, the English Church sent out her first Colonial Bishop, Dr. Inglis, to Nova Scotia. Other consecrations gradually followed. Endowments have been provided, partly by the Government, partly by the East India Company, partly by

³ This unfortunate prince died in 1807. The Pope had given him the title of Cardinal of York. His own coins called him Henry IX. In his latter days he was supported by a pension from George III.

⁴ This is written in 1853.

the funds at the disposal of the Church Societies, and partly by the piety and munificence of individual members of the Church. There are now (1853) twenty-five Bishops in our colonies and foreign dependencies, distributed in the following manner:—Seven in British North America; four in India and Ceylon; one in China; six in Australia; four in the West Indies; one at the Cape of Good Hope; one in Sierra Leone; and one for Gibraltar and the Mediterranean. The number of clergy in the colonies has vastly increased since the date of the first Bishop's mission, and is constantly increasing. Colleges for the education of candidates have been established in Barbados, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Newfoundland, Upper and Lower Canada, Calcutta, Madras, Colombo, Sydney, Tasmania, Adelaide in Southern Australia, New Zealand, and Malta. The Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts has been indefatigable in its efforts to spread the word of truth, and provide for its permanently taking root in distant regions; and it has been seconded since 1800 by another body called the Church Missionary Society. The year 1848 witnessed a grand experiment in the same holy cause. A college arose on the site of the monastery of St. Augustine at Canterbury, whose express object it is to educate students for the work of the ministry in the colonies and dependencies of the British empire. It owed its origin chiefly to the munificence of a member of the British House of Commons, Mr. A. J. B. Hope, who purchased the ground and the long desecrated buildings, with a view to devoting them to some object in connexion with the Church. We may trust that this noble act will be blessed both in earth and in heaven, and that the example which it affords to English Churchmen will find abundant imitators⁵.

We have lingered upon these grateful topics, and anticipated somewhat the course of our history. It is time to return to the narrative, though the occurrences to which the year 1789 conducts us are such as the Christian annalist would fain, if he might, pass over.

⁵ It is computed that in England, Ireland, Scotland, the British Colonies, and the United States of America, there are, in the whole, four archbishops, one hundred and two bishops, and 22,542 clergy.

CHAPTER XL.

GEORGE III. 1789—1802.

PERIOD OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

THE social system in France had long rested on a hollow foundation. The lower classes groaned under a galling yoke; while the luxury of the court, and the exorbitant privileges of a degenerate nobility, afforded too ready a handle to writers who, under the guise of a false philosophy, undermined the very foundations of civil and religious duty. A revolution at length broke forth, in which the most unexampled horrors were perpetrated under the standard of liberty and equality; and the throne and the altar were alike subverted. The innocent king was brought to the scaffold (1793), and the public exercise of the Christian religion was for a time forbidden by law.

It has been the general policy of England to abstain from interfering in the civil commotions of other countries; but the fierce and ignorant fanatics who directed the government of France proclaimed to the world their purpose of assisting all parties who in any foreign country would follow their example. As a measure of self-protection, it became necessary to prepare for war with revolutionary France: and the danger of the principles adopted by that country was so strongly felt, that Mr. Burke, together with the sounder part of the Whigs, seceded from the party of which Mr. Fox was the leader, and supported the government of Mr. Pitt.

The war, which was declared against Great Britain in 1793, was marked by a series of the most brilliant naval victories, which rendered England the mistress of the seas, and went far to counterbalance the disasters that for several years attended the military measures of the minister. An expedition under the Duke of York to Holland (then invaded by the French armies) was an utter failure. In the south of France the city of Toulon had declared for Louis XVII., but no adequate assistance was sent from England; and Lord Hood, the British admiral, who had been received into the city, was forced to abandon it to the revolutionary army. A young officer distinguished himself in this siege,

who soon rose to the command of the armies of France, and led them to the most astonishing victories. This was Napoleon Buonaparte, who afterwards overthrew the government of the Directory, under which he was then serving; became first consul in 1799, and was crowned Emperor of France in 1804. The successes of this remarkable man on land were as wonderful as the victories of England on the sea.

The first of these great naval triumphs was gained by Lord Howe with the Channel-fleet, June 1, 1794; and Lord Bridport in the following year obtained an advantage of less account. In 1797 Sir John Jervis, with fifteen sail, defeated the Spanish fleet of twenty-seven sail of the line, off Cape St. Vincent; for which he received the title of Lord St. Vincent. And in the same year Admiral Duncan destroyed the fleet of Holland (which by this time had become a province of France), for which he was created Lord Duncan of Camperdown.

In the midst of these naval successes a crisis had occurred in the history of England, which occasioned the deepest anxiety. A mutiny broke out at the Nore in the fleets, on which the very existence of England seemed to depend, and at one time assumed a most threatening character. In the following year (1798) a rebellion in Ireland, which had been fomented by French agents, struck dismay to the hearts of all who saw in the British empire the great bulwark (under Divine Providence) of ancient laws and pure religion. The mutiny in the fleet was quelled with less difficulty than had been apprehended; and Parker, the principal ringleader, was hanged. The Irish rebellion, which was supported by a French expedition, was not suppressed until the most dreadful crimes had been committed by the misguided people; nor without a great sacrifice of valuable lives, as well as of treasure, which could ill be spared from the great struggle with France. One good fruit was produced by this rebellion:—it convinced men of the necessity of an union between the parliaments of Great Britain and Ireland, similar to that which had been arranged between England and Scotland in the reign of Queen Anne. The measure was not effected without difficulty, but was at length ratified, July 2, 1800. The kingdom thus consolidated was to be thenceforth

called the kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. May the union continue through all generations!

The year (1798) which was marked by this disastrous rebellion in Ireland, had been distinguished also by one of those unequalled triumphs, which will for ever render the name of Nelson familiar to Englishmen. This was the battle of the Nile (Aug. 1). Buonaparte had crossed with a large army to the coast of Egypt, with a view rather to strike at the British empire in India, than to conquer Egypt for its own sake. Sir Horatio Nelson was sent in pursuit of the French fleet, which he discovered in Aboukir-bay, near Alexandria. His victory was most complete, after a severe engagement, which lasted through the day and night, and during which the *L'Orient*, the French admiral's flag ship, blew up, and all on board perished. Nelson was raised to the peerage by the title of Baron Nelson of the Nile.

In the following year another fruitless expedition was sent under the Duke of York to Holland; while Buonaparte made a rapid conquest of Egypt. He was advancing into Syria, when the progress of his arms was checked at Acre by Sir Sydney Smith. Having returned to Egypt, he soon afterwards crossed to France, with a view to take advantage of the crisis which he foresaw in the revolutionary government. The army which he left in Egypt was defeated in 1801 by a British force under Sir Ralph Abercrombie. This general died of the wounds which he received in the battle; but the result of his victory was the abandonment of Egypt by the French. About the same time (1801) an expedition under Sir Hyde Parker, with Nelson second in command, was sent to Copenhagen, to counteract the designs of the Northern powers, who had entered into an armed neutrality to resist the maritime rights claimed by England. A tremendous battle took place, and the victory achieved by England was due to the indomitable spirit of Lord Nelson. A favourable change to England took place in the counsels of Russia, on the murder of the Emperor Paul, and peace was concluded with Alexander, who succeeded to his throne.

Having by this time routed the Austrians in Germany and Italy, Buonaparte was now making vast preparations for the invasion of England, which called forth the

national spirit in a remarkable degree. The whole kingdom was filled with volunteers, who were not daunted by the renown lately gained by the French in the victories of Marengo and Hohenlinden. Buonaparte wished, however, for a breathing time; and after much negotiation, a peace was signed at Amiens, between France and England (March 25, 1802). At this time Mr. Pitt had retired for a short time from office; and Mr. Addington, who afterwards became Lord Sidmouth, was prime-minister.

CHAPTER XLI.

GEORGE III. 1802—1820.

PERIOD OF THE PENINSULAR WAR.

THE peace of Amiens proved to be nothing but a truce. It became evident that Buonaparte (who was crowned by the pope as Napoleon I. Dec. 2, 1804) had no intention of fulfilling its terms: and when war was again declared, Mr. Pitt returned to office.

Napoleon continued his preparations for the invasion of England; but his purpose was completely baffled by the destruction of the French navy (Oct. 21, 1805) by Lord Nelson, off Cape Trafalgar, near Cadiz. The battle, which has its name from that cape, was the greatest of naval conflicts, but, important as was this victory to England, it was thought to be dearly purchased by the death of Nelson, who was shot at the close of the battle from the mizen-mast of the Redoubtable. His last signal was, "England expects every man to do his duty."

Mr. Pitt himself died in the following year, and a Whig ministry was formed, including Mr. Fox; who, however, soon followed his great political rival to the grave, and the remains of these statesmen repose side by side in Westminster Abbey. Mr. Pitt was not successful as a war-minister; but his high principle and stedfast opposition to the revolutionary mania were a great means, under God, of preserving this country from its contagion. The ministry which succeeded him was nicknamed "all the talents," from the pretension which it made of combining men of

ability from all parties. About this time Mr. Canning became a distinguished member of the Tory party. Another government was soon formed under the Duke of Portland (1807), by which a second expedition was sent to Copenhagen, to seize the Danish fleet, in order to prevent its passing into the power of Napoleon. That emperor had now humbled Austria at Austerlitz, and broken the power of Prussia at Jena; and having reduced Russia to sue for peace by the battles of Eylau and Friedland, was aiming at an universal empire. He had concluded a peace with those powers at Tilsit, which left him at leisure for other designs; the next of which was, to add Spain to his dominions.

This purpose he effected by the most consummate treachery. In 1807 his troops under General Junot occupied Portugal, while the royal family fled to the Brazils. Having induced the King of Spain, and his son Prince Ferdinand, to meet him at Bayonne, Napoleon forced them to resign the crown of Spain, which he bestowed upon his brother Joseph. The Spanish princes were sent as prisoners into France, and large armies were poured into Spain to secure the prize which had been thus perfidiously seized.

Napoleon sowed the seed of his own downfall by this detestable act. The spirit of the Spanish nation rose against the French, and it was determined by the British ministry (1808) to send an army under Sir Arthur Wellesley into the Peninsula. His name was already known for his triumphs in the East, where his brother (the Marquess Wellesley) had governed India with great success; but it was soon to attain a renown beyond the fame of the greatest generals.

He soon defeated General Junot at Vimeira; but the fruits of this victory were, in some degree, lost by a convention entered into at Cintra with the French. Another army arrived in November under Sir John Moore, who however seems to have been crippled in his movements by instructions from the ministry at home, and deceived by the information furnished him in Spain; and he found it necessary to retreat to the north. He was pursued by Marshal Soult to Corunna, which he reached after dreadful calamities: and the French general endeavoured to prevent him from embarking his army. A severe engagement took place, in which the English gloriously repulsed their assailants; but

Moore himself was among the slain, and his army was forced to leave the remains of its gallant leader in a foreign land.

In the spring of 1809, Sir A. Wellesley again landed with an army in Portugal, and, having marched into Spain, gained a great victory over the French at Talavera. He was, however, forced to retire into Portugal, as Napoleon was now able to direct his whole force against the Peninsula, having again crushed the Austrians in the battle of Wagram. With the most consummate skill, Sir Arthur (now Lord Wellington) formed three lines of defence across the Peninsula (1810) at Torres Vedras; and Massena, who commanded the French army, in vain endeavoured to draw him from his impregnable position. In the spring this general commenced his retreat, pursued by Lord Wellington, who, after several successes, again entered Spain; and Marshal Soult was defeated in the bloody battle of Albuera. The progress of Lord Wellington was obstinately contested at Ciudad Rodrigo, Badajoz, and Salamanca; but his advance was a series of victories, and he entered Madrid in triumph; though events in the latter part of the campaign obliged him to relinquish again, for a time, the possession of this capital.

The dominion of Napoleon was now drawing to a close. He had rashly resolved (1812) on an invasion of Russia, which proved most disastrous to him. He became master indeed of Moscow, but the Russians themselves set fire to it, that it might not afford him shelter; and his retreat from that city was calamitous beyond any recorded in history. The kingdoms on which he had trampled now united against him. In Spain, Lord Wellington gained a decisive victory at Vittoria (1813), and while the allies were crossing the Rhine, and entering France on one side (1814), the British general was passing its frontier on the other. His last victory was at Thoulouse, on the very day (April 10, 1814) on which Napoleon was signing his abdication at Fontainebleau. By an extraordinary oversight it was agreed by the allies that Napoleon should have the isle of Elba in the Mediterranean with the title of emperor. The Bourbons were restored to their legitimate rights, and Louis XVIII., who had chiefly resided in England during the war, ascended the throne of his ancestors.

Who can help wishing that our venerable king, whose spirit had roused his people to maintain this struggle against French ambition and revolutionary principles, had been permitted to witness its triumphant close? In 1810 the malady with which he had been more than once afflicted, rendered him again incapable of business, and was never removed. His eldest son was made Prince Regent, and retained his father's ministry. In 1812, Lord Liverpool became first lord of the treasury on the death of Mr. Perceval, who was shot in the lobby of the House of Commons by a desperate person named Bellingham, to whom he had given no offence. Mr. Canning and Lord Castlereagh were Lord Liverpool's colleagues. The latter became Marquess of Londonderry on his father's death.

It is little to the credit of the Americans, that while England was struggling so nobly in the defence of all that is sacred and valuable, they engaged her in a new war in 1812; nor was peace concluded till 1815, in which year the whole of Europe was electrified by the return of Napoleon to France.

It was never likely that that restless spirit would be satisfied with the petty territory which was assigned him, while its proximity to France was a continual temptation to him to return. Having landed at Frejus, he was welcomed with enthusiastic affection, and his march to Paris was one continued proof of the magical power which his name possessed over the army and citizens of France. Louis was forced to withdraw to Ghent, and the allies once more roused themselves to the contest, which was thus renewed. A large army was formed in the Netherlands under the Duke of Wellington, who encountered and totally defeated the French in a great battle at Waterloo, near Brussels, in which the power of Napoleon was finally broken. He had exhausted his resources in the preparation for this final struggle, and resolved to surrender himself to the English. By these he was sent to end his days in the isle of St. Helena, where his personal comfort was attended to by the British government, and as much liberty allowed him as was consistent with his safe custody. Paris was a second time taken possession of, and a general peace once more concluded.

No event in our history is more glorious to England than

this termination of a war carried on so perseveringly, to preserve the national independence, and to support the great principles of order and religion.

From the date of the battle of Waterloo to the death of George III. few matters occurred which require mention in a work like the present. England was at peace with the world. Her character for daring and enduring, for chivalrous resistance and for more than chivalrous forbearance, had become established among all civilized nations. The only foreign expedition which was undertaken during this interval was one which was sent out to Algiers, under the command of Lord Exmouth, to compel the release of the Christian slaves in the possession of the Dey of that place. After a fierce bombardment of the town the captives were surrendered, and the English fleet sailed away.

At home matters were not so tranquil as they were abroad. Distress had been felt more or less during the whole period of the war; but various causes had combined to make men bear it without repining. Taxes were heavy, it was true; but then they were necessary to avert from their hearths and homes those evils under which the whole continent was groaning. Accordingly, they bore them with what cheerfulness they might, and hoped that when peace came, plenty would follow in its train. They were disappointed. Peace brought no immediate reduction in taxation. A vast public debt had been accumulated; the value of land became lower, in consequence of the foreign demand for provisions having fallen; various trades, more or less connected with war, became less in request; and large bodies of men were thrown out of employment. The natural results were, murmurs, seditious meetings, disaffection to the Government, and other symptoms of an unhealthy state of things, which were not repressed without the suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act, and other severe measures.

The latter years of the aged king were darkened by mournful family events, as well as by these national disturbances. His grand-daughter, the only child of the Regent, had been married on the 2nd of May, 1816, to Prince Leopold, of Saxe Cobourg. She had long been the hope of the nation, for she was at that time the only

descendant of George III. of that degree of kindred. But it was not ordered that the line of English sovereigns should be continued either in herself or in her offspring. She died on November 6, 1817, after having been delivered of a dead child, to the great grief of the whole nation.

On the 17th of November, 1818, Queen Charlotte expired at Kew Palace, after a lingering illness. Edward, Duke of Kent, the fourth son of George III., died of the effects of a neglected cold on January 23, 1820. He had married Victoria, a princess of Saxe Cobourg, and left an only child, the Princess Alexandrina Victoria (our present Queen), then not a year old. Six days after this last event the aged monarch himself descended to the grave. Personally he had long been lost to his subjects, but the example in high place of a virtuous and affectionate father had not been without effect upon the age. The piety of the king was warm and sincere. He valued the Church, and the Scriptures, of which the Church is the witness and keeper, and uniformly exercised his influence on the side of sound principle and true religion. He was possessed of considerable ability, and was well acquainted with the history of foreign states and its bearing upon that of England. In the events of the day he took deep interest, and, accordingly, had a greater share in the direction of affairs of state than was generally supposed. His firmness, it is believed, averted for a time more than one measure which was directed against the Church. For these reasons he has not unfrequently been called with reverence and affection—George the Good.

It would be impossible even to allude to the changes which the sixty years' reign of this king produced or witnessed in the condition of England. A mere catalogue of the useful inventions, or novel applications of machinery, by which it was distinguished, would fill a considerable volume. On these subjects, therefore, we think it best to send the reader to other sources of information. The progress of a nation in art and science; the development of the resources which it possesses in its soil, and in the intellectual power of its members; the advances made by it, from time to time, in comfort and civilization; its contrivances for diminishing manual labour, while, at the same time, production is multiplied a hundred-fold; the expedients which it adopts for maintaining its increasing

population, are, indeed, inviting topics, but cannot be treated of in this place, either generally or with reference to our own nation in particular.

In every department in which mind can be exercised a wonderful progress was made during these sixty years. We cannot do more than mention a few leading names in each department.

In Poetry—Chatterton, Home, Burns, Scott, Coleridge, Wordsworth, Rogers, Southey, Byron.

In History—Gibbon, Sir James Mackintosh.

In the Fine Arts—Sir Joshua Reynolds, Banks, Gainsborough.

In the Law—Sir William Blackstone, Lord Thurlow, Lord Stowell, Lord Eldon.

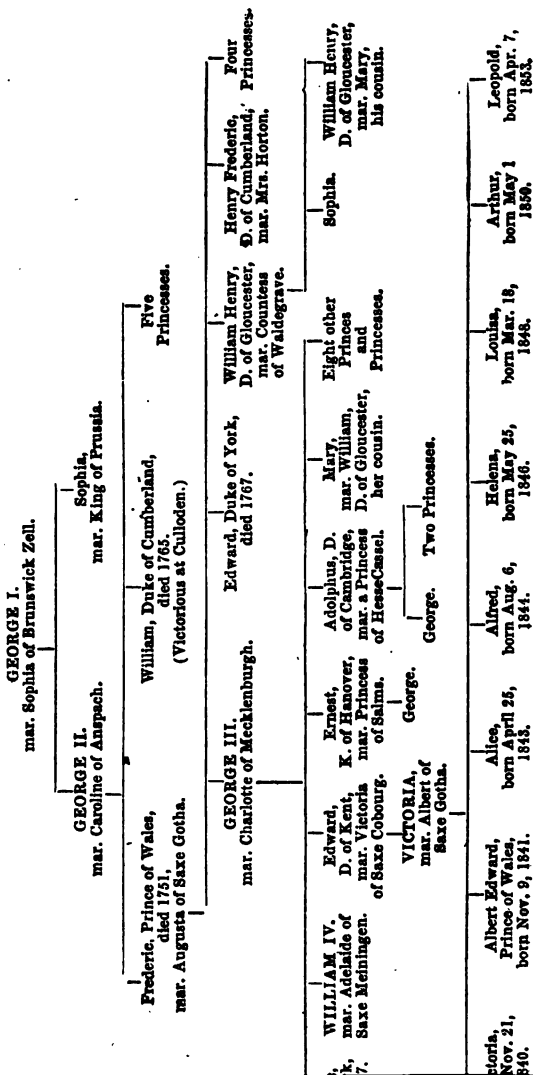
In the practical application of Science—Brindley, Watt, Arkwright, Smeaton.

In Astronomy—Herschel.

In Philology—Kennicott, Hurd, Porson, Dobree.

A great improvement in the warmth of the Church's teaching is traceable throughout this reign. Her missionary exertions continued, and also her endeavours to diffuse Christian knowledge at home. Greater attention began to be paid to education. The Universities revised their systems, and thus a more learned clergy were sent throughout the land. In the year 1811 the National Society was established, for the express purpose of instructing the children of the poor; week-day and Sunday schools raised their heads in the most remote parishes; men began to feel that it was a sounder and more Christian practice to prevent than to punish crime; to rear in holiness than to visit for sin; to train in the paths of the Church than to recal from those of separatism. Many names occur in the annals of the English Episcopate, which adorn this period by the learning or piety of their possessors. Warburton, bishop of Gloucester; Lowth, bishop of Oxford; Barrington, bishop of Durham; Porteus, bishop of London; Watson, bishop of Llandaff; Horsley, bishop of St. Asaph; Horne, bishop of Norwich; Burgess, bishop of Salisbury; and Van Mildert, bishop of Durham. These are a few out of the goodly catalogue of men, of whom it is not too much to say, that to the latest days of the Church "the people will tell of their wisdom, and the congregation "I show forth their praise."

DESCENDANTS OF GEORGE I.



CHAPTER XLII.

GEORGE IV.

Born at St. James's Palace. Buried at Windsor. Reigned 10 years. From A.D. 1820 to A.D. 1830.

WILLIAM IV.

Born at Buckingham House. Buried at Windsor. Reigned 7 years. From A.D. 1830 to A.D. 1837.

VICTORIA.

Born at Kensington Palace, May 24, 1819. Became Queen A.D. 1837, whom God preserve!

Archbishops of Canterbury.

Charles Manners Sutton, A.D. 1805	William Howley, A.D. 1828—1848.
—1828.	John Bird Sumner, A.D. 1848.

THE prince who became George IV. had for some years exercised the functions of royalty; the change, therefore, occasioned by his father's death was merely nominal. He had long been separated from his wife, who died in 1821. The lamented Princess Charlotte was his only child. Having survived his second brother, Frederic, Duke of York, he was succeeded by William, Duke of Clarence, who became William IV. in 1830.

William IV. died after a short reign, in 1837, and was survived by Queen Adelaide¹, his consort, a princess of Saxe Meiningen. He was succeeded in his English dominions by Victoria, the only daughter of his deceased brother the Duke of Kent. As no female can inherit the crown of Hanover, it devolved on the Duke of Cumberland, the fifth son of George III.

On the 10th of February, 1840, her Majesty espoused her cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe Gotha. An heir-apparent was born Nov. 9, 1841, and shortly afterwards received the name of Albert. Born Duke of Cornwall, he was within a few months created Prince of Wales. Her Majesty has also at this time (July, 1853) four infant daughters, and three other sons.

We abstain from entering into the details of the thirty-

¹ This amiable queen died in the autumn of 1849, to the great grief of the whole nation.

three years which have elapsed since the death of George III. The time has scarcely arrived for judging calmly either of the measures which have been effected during that interval, or of the characters of the men who have been mainly instrumental in effecting them. In several respects we have reason to be eminently thankful to Almighty God. Great revolutions have taken place in part of the Turkish empire in Europe, in Spain, Portugal, the Netherlands, and France. The year 1848 saw almost every throne of the continent shaken. In France the kingship of the younger branch of the Bourbons gave way to a republic. This republic has since given way to an empire. Italy was in commotion from the Alps to its southern extremity. The pope became an exile, dependent on the hospitality of a neighbouring prince, who was himself in fear of being deprived of half his territory. Austria was in danger of losing her Italian dominions and the kingdom of Hungary; Prussia, troubled by a population newly admitted to political privileges, and ignorant how to use them. But all this while England has not been engaged in any great European struggle, such as that which happily came to an end in 1815. It has indeed been necessary for her, from time to time, to send forth armaments from her shores; as, for instance, in 1827, when an English fleet co-operated with those of France and Russia in the battle of Navarino. In the East, also, partial wars have several times occurred, attended with some loss, though crowned with eventual success to the British arms. This, however, is a very different thing from being entangled in a war with near neighbours, and nations more or less connected with her in blood and in religion.

Again, various disturbances have at times occurred in England. The manufacturing districts, especially Manchester, were disaffected soon after the accession of George IV. Tumults took place in several parts of the country in the years 1831-2. Ireland has been for some years in an unsettled state; distress, local and general, agricultural and commercial, has more than once afflicted the empire. A new and terrible disease has invaded our shores; and the patience of the population has thus been sorely tried in many ways. But their general loyalty has not failed them.

The Church has taught them to be faithful subjects and good citizens. The whirlwind which has uprooted other governments has passed harmless over these islands. This was especially evident during the course of the year 1848, when, with the news of the recent French revolution ringing in their ears, the whole nation rose, as one man, against those who would sow sedition, to defend the cause of order and religion.

The world, so to speak, was assembled in London in the summer of 1851, on the occasion of the "Great Exhibition of the Industry of all Nations." Not only was there no disturbance, but the year itself was singularly marked by the absence of ordinary crimes and offences.

Among the important measures which have received the royal assent, may be mentioned, the bill to restore to the members of the Romish Church the political privileges which had been withheld from them since the reign of Charles II. This act was passed under the ministry of the Duke of Wellington and Mr. Peel in the year 1829.

A bill of great importance was passed in 1832, under the government of Earl Grey, to reform the constitution of the House of Commons, by giving a more equal representation to the various boroughs and counties in the United Kingdom.

In this brief review it would be wrong to omit a bill for the abolition of slavery in the British Possessions; a bill for the more effectual administration of the poor law; and a bill for regulating the government of corporations.

These measures, and others also of great importance occasioned much difference of opinion at the period when they were adopted; and their wisdom can only be tested by time.

It is important to observe, that during these reigns the empire of England in the East has been greatly increased, and the vast islands of New Holland, New Zealand, and Van Diemen's Land, have to a far greater extent than before been colonized by English subjects. Early in the reign of George III., expeditions of science and discovery were sent forth under the command of Captain Cook, the celebrated navigator; and the success of his efforts has led to many similar measures on the part of the British government. Expeditions to the interior of Africa, and also to the Arctic

regions, have been rewarded by many important discoveries. Such efforts lead not only to national greatness and the advancement of science, but are likely to confer still more important blessings on mankind at large. The English language is now spoken, and the English laws are established, over a great portion of the globe; and we cannot but believe that the design of Divine Providence in giving to England its vast colonial empire, has been to afford this country the opportunity of extending the religion of our Lord and Saviour all over the world. In some degree this paramount duty has been acknowledged, as we have already seen², by the establishment of colonial bishoprics, and the sending forth of colonial clergy. The last ten years have witnessed mighty and self-denying efforts on the part of the Church in the work of evangelizing the heathen.

And the Church has not been inactive at home. A new English bishopric, the first since the reign of Henry VIII., has been founded; measures have been taken to make the pastoral influence of the clergy felt in men's hearts and homes by reducing the size of dioceses and parishes; a vast number of new churches have been built; schools have been multiplied; and endeavours made to educate persons of every class in "His statutes and His judgments, which, if a man do, he shall even live in them."

It cannot be concealed that there have been objectionable circumstances in the manner in which even the best things have been brought about; that distrust has prevailed sometimes even among brethren labouring for the same good end; and that sound principles appear occasionally to have been in peril,—and this remark is applicable to ecclesiastical as well as to civil affairs,—but, on the whole, the events of our history, and the conflicting passions and interests of men, have been so overruled hitherto as to issue in the establishment of the happiest government which the world has ever seen. No country possesses in an equal degree the blessing of a rational and manly freedom; nor has any been more favoured with an intelligent and industrious population, and a succession of distinguished men in every branch of mental and practical excellence. Above all, God has wonderfully preserved, through all these generations,

² See pp. 165, 166.

and all the trials to which it has been exposed, that branch of Christ's Holy Catholic Church, which we believe to be the purest that can be found in Christendom.

May we show our thankfulness for these blessings by using them rightly! May we value them duly in our own generation, and earnestly endeavour to hand them down unimpaired to those that shall come after us; and ever preserve a lively recollection of the duty incumbent on us, to labour diligently in the great work of making known God's way to all the earth, His saving health unto all nations.

THE END OF THE HISTORY.

APPENDIX.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND,

ILLUSTRATED FROM HER POETS.

THE BRITONS BEFORE AND UNDER THE ROMANS.

BOLD were those Britons, who, the careless sons
Of Nature, roam'd the forest-bounds, at once
Their verdant city, high-embowering fane,
And the gay circle of their woodland wars:
For by the Druid¹ taught, that death but shifts
The vital scene, they that prime fear despised;
And, prone to rush on steel, disdain'd to spare
An ill-saved life that must again return.

* * * * *

Witness, Rome,
Who saw'st thy Cæsar, from the naked land,
Whose only forts were British hearts, repell'd,
To seek Pharsalian wreaths. Witness, the toil,
The blood of ages, bootless to secure,
Beneath an empire's yoke, a stubborn isle,
Disputed hard, and never quite subdued.
The North remain'd untouch'd, where those who scorn'd
To stoop, retired; and to their keen effort
Yielding at last, recoil'd the Roman power.
In vain, unable to sustain the shock,
From sea to sea desponding legions raised
The wall immense; and yet, on Summer's eve,
While sport his lambkins round, the shepherd's gaze,
Continual o'er it burst the northern storm²,
As often, check'd, receded; threatening hoarse
A swift return. But the devouring flood
No more endured control, when, to support
The last remains of empire, was recall'd
The weary Roman, and the Briton lay
Unnerved, exhausted, spiritless, and sunk.
Great proof! how men enfeeble into slaves.

¹ The Druids, Bards, and other authorities of the Celtic nations taught that death in war was succeeded by life in another body.

² The Caledonians, afterwards called Picts, and the Scots, pouring from the north like a storm on the southern part of the island, despite of the Roman fortifications.

The sword behind him flash'd ; before him roar'd,
Deaf to his woes, the deep. Forlorn, around
He roll'd his eye, not sparkling ardent flame,
As when Caractacus to battle led
Silurian swains, and Boadicea taught
Her raging troops the miseries of slaves.

Thomson's Liberty.

BRITAIN FROM THE SAXON INVASION TO THE BATTLE OF HASTINGS.

THEN, (sad relief !) from the bleak coast that hears
The German ocean roar, deep-blooming, strong,
And yellow-hair'd, the blue-eyed Saxon came.
He came implored, but came with other aim
Than to protect. For conquest and defence
Suffices the same arm. With the fierce race
Pour'd, in a fresh invigorating stream,
Blood, where unquell'd a mighty spirit glow'd.
Rash war, and perilous battle their delight ;
And immature, and red with glorious wounds,
Unpeaceful death their choice ; deriving thence
A right to feast, and drain immortal bowls
In Odin's Hall³ ; whose blazing roof resounds
The genial uproar of those shades, who fall
In desperate fight, or by some brave attempt ;
And though more polish'd times the martial creed
Disown, yet still the fearless habit lives.
Nor were the surly gifts of war their all.
Wisdom was likewise theirs, indulgent laws,
The calm gradations of art-nursing peace,
And matchless orders, the deep basis still
On which ascends my⁴ British reign. Untamed
To the refining subtleties of slaves,
They brought an happy government along,
Form'd by that freedom, which, with secret voice,
Impartial Nature teaches all her sons,
And which of old through the whole Scythian mass
I strong inspired⁴. Monarchical their state,
But prudently confined, and mingled wise
Of each harmonious power : only, too much
Imperious war into their rule infused,
Prevail'd their general-king, and chieftain-thanes.

³ The Saxons, a Gothic tribe, believed that men killed in war were carried to Odin's Hall, there to banquet for ever.

⁴ The poet supposes the Genius of Liberty to be relating the progress of liberty in Britain.

In many a field, by civil fury stain'd,
 Bled the discordant heptarchy; and long
 (Educing good from ill) the battle groan'd;
 Ere, blood-cemented, Anglo-Saxons saw
 Egbert and Peace on one united throne.

No sooner dawn'd the fair disclosing calm
 Of brighter days, when, lo! the North anew,
 With stormy nations black, on England pour'd
 Woes the severest e'er a people felt.
 The Danish raven^s, lured by annual prey,
 Hung o'er the land incessant. Fleet on fleet
 Of barbarous pirates unremitting tore
 The miserable coast. Before them stalk'd,
 Far-seen, the demon of devouring flame;
 Rapine, and murder, all with blood besmear'd,
 Without or ear, or eye, or feeling heart;
 While close behind them march'd the sallow power
 Of desolating famine, who delights
 In grass-grown cities, and in desert fields;
 And purple-spotted pestilence, by whom
 Ev'n friendship scared, in sickening horror sinks
 Each social sense and tenderness of life.
 Fixing at last, the sanguinary race
 Spread, from the Humber's loud-resounding shore,
 To where the Thames devolves his gentle maze,
 And with superior arm the Saxon awed.
 But superstition first, and monkish dreams,
 And monk-directed cloister-seeking kings,
 Had ate away his vigour, ate away
 His edge of courage, and depress'd the soul
 Of conquering freedom, which he once respired.
 Thus cruel ages pass'd; and rare appear'd
 White-mantled Peace, exulting o'er the vale,
 As when with Alfred, from the wilds she came
 To policed cities and protected plains.
 Thus by degrees the Saxon empire sunk,
 Then set entire in Hastings' bloody field.

Thomson's Liberty.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

THE woman-hearted Confessor prepares
 The evanescence of the Saxon line.
 Hark! 'tis the tolling Curfew!—the stars shine;
 But of the lights that cherish household cares

^s The ancient Danish standard was a figure of a raven.

And festive gladness, burns not one that dares
 To twinkle after that dull stroke of thine,
 Emblem and instrument, from Thames to Tyne,
 Of force that daunts, and cunning that ensnares!
 Yet as the terrors of the lordly bell,
 That quench, from hut to palace, lamps and fires,
 Touch not the tapers of the sacred quires;
 Even so a thralldom, studious to expel
 Old laws, and ancient customs to derange,
 To Creed or Ritual brings no fatal change.

Wordsworth.

EDWARD THE FIRST'S GRIEF FOR QUEEN ELEANOR.

THE English powers were in array,
 The borders of the kingdom won,
 When settling o'er the conqueror's way
 The shadow of dark death came on,
 It did not thin his banner'd host,—
 It took the one he loved the most.

A moment's space he turn'd aside
 From his fix'd spirit's steady aim;
 And slowly follow'd her who died,
 Till to grey Westminster they came;
 And wheresoe'er they set her down
 He fondly rear'd a cross of stone.

They rested nigh Northampton's bowers,
 They rested nigh old Waltham's shade,
 And when they drew to London's towers
 One more sad halting place they made:—
 Who knows not where King Charles's horse
 Hath look'd so long o'er Charing Cross?

They laid her in the minster shade
 Who should attend his march no more;
 And when the burial rites were paid,
 The hour of saddening honours o'er,
 King Edward from the shrine set forth
 And join'd his army in the north.

Chronicled in a stirring page,
 Ruler of spirits stern and rude,—
 Blest by a father's shielded age!
 Branded by death of Wallace good
 But little time could grief and he
 In outward show keep company.

Yet went no lone thoughts wandering back
 Away from shrine and monument,
 To early memory's distant track,
 When in that shadowing eastern tent,
 The gentle girl of haughty Spain
 Could make the Assassin's dagger vain?
 No dream of that Sicilian shore
 Crossing the blue sea citron-isled,
 Where he had stood with Eleanor
 To watch beside their dying child;
 Or from Caernarvon's tower'd heights
 Shown their young lord to Cambria's knights?
 The peasant passes by the way
 And looks up to yon graven crest;
 The pedlar-woman worn and grey
 Sits down upon its step to rest;
 But never thinks 'twas rear'd up for
 The love of good Queen Eleanor.
 For earthly loves do all pass by
 And little trace of sorrow leave;
 The country lad goes whistling nigh
 Where heavy hearts once stopp'd to grieve.
 And who, but for the bedesman's lore,
 Now knows the name of Eleanor?
 Yet it is written,—sure and deep,—
 In *one* Book undiscern'd of men;
 And guarded well, its leaves shall keep
 Their trust, until the hour, when
 The wakening trumpet's solemn breath
 Shall steal upon the ear of death.

Anonymous.

STREAM OF BRITISH HISTORY FROM EDWARD I. TO ELIZABETH.

I.

"RUIN seize thee, ruthless king!
 Confusion on thy banners wait!
 Though fann'd by Conquest's crimson wing,
 They mock the air with idle state.
 Helm, nor hauberk's⁶ twisted mail,
 Nor e'en thy virtues, tyrant, shall avail

⁶ The hauberk was a texture of steel ringlets, or rings interwoven, forming a coat of mail, that sat close to the body, and adapted itself to every motion.

To save thy secret soul from nightly fears,
 From Cambria's⁷ curse, from Cambria's tears !"
 Such were the sounds, that o'er the crested pride
 Of the first Edward scatter'd wild dismay,
 As down the steep of Snowdon's shaggy side
 He wound with toilsome march his long array.
 Stout Glo'ster⁸ stood aghast in speechless trance :
 To arms ! cried Mortimer⁹, and couch'd his quivering lance
 On a rock, whose haughty brow
 Frowns o'er old Conway's foaming flood,
 Robed in the sable garb of woe,
 With haggard eyes the poet stood ;
 (Loose his beard, and hoary hair
 Stream'd, like a meteor, to the troubled air,)
 And with a master's hand, and prophet's fire,
 Struck the deep sorrows of his lyre.
 " Hark, how each giant-oak, and desert cave,
 Sighs to the torrent's awful voice beneath !
 O'er thee, oh king ! their hundred arms they wave,
 Revenge on thee in hoarser murmurs breathe ;
 Vocal no more, since Cambria's fatal day,
 To high-born Hoel's harp, or soft Llewellyn's lay.
 " Cold is Cadwallo's tongue,
 That hush'd the stormy main ;
 Brave Urien sleeps upon his craggy bed :
 Mountains, ye mourn in vain
 Modred, whose magic song
 Made huge Plinlimmon bow his cloud-top'd head
 On dreary Arvon's shore¹ they lie,
 Smear'd with gore, and ghastly pale :
 Far, far aloof th' affrighted ravens sail :
 The famish'd eagle screams, and passes by.
 Dear lost companions of my tuneful art,
 Dear, as the light that visits these sad eyes,
 Dear, as the ruddy drops that warm my heart,
 Ye died amidst your dying country's cries—
 No more I weep. They do not sleep.
 On yonder cliffs, a griesly band,
 I see them sit, they linger yet,
 Avengers of their native land :
 With me in dreadful harmony they join,
 And weave with bloody hands the tissue of thy line.

⁷ Cambria, Wales. So called from the Cymry or Cimmerii, its oldest inhabitants.

⁸ Gilbert de Clare, surnamed the Red, Earl of Gloucester and Hertford, son-in-law to King Edward the First.

⁹ Edmund de Mortimer, lord of Wigmore.

¹ The shores of Caernarvonshire opposite to the Isle of Anglesea.

II.

" " Weave the warp, and weave the woof,
 The winding-sheet of Edward's race :
 Give ample room, and verge enough
 The characters of Hell to trace.
 Mark the year, and mark the night,
 When Severn shall re-echo with affright
 The shrieks of death, through Berkeley's roofs that ring ²,
 Shrieks of an agonizing king ;
 She-wolf of France ³, with unrelenting fangs,
 That tear'st the bowels of thy mangled mate,
 From thee be born, who o'er thy country hangs
 The scourge of Heaven ⁴. What terrours round him wait !
 Amazement in his van, with Flight combined ;
 And Sorrow's faded form, and Solitude behind.

" " Mighty Victor, mighty Lord,
 Low on his funeral couch he lies ⁵ !
 No pitying heart, no eye, afford
 A tear to grace his obsequies.
 Is the sable warrior ⁶ fled ?
 Thy son is gone. He rests among the dead.
 The swarm, that in the noon-tide beam were born ?
 Gone to salute the rising Morn.
 Fair laughs the Morn, and soft the Zephyr blows,
 While proudly riding o'er the azure realm
 In gallant trim the gilded vessel goes ;
 Youth on the prow, and Pleasure at the helm ;
 Regardless of the sweeping Whirlwind's sway,
 That, hush'd in grim repose, expects his evening-prey.

" " Fill high the sparkling bowl,
 The rich repast prepare :
 Reft of a crown ⁷, he yet may share the feast :
 Close by the regal chair
 Fell Thirst and Famine scowl
 A baleful smile upon their baffled guest.

² Edward the Second, cruelly butchered in Berkeley castle.

³ Isabel of France, Edward the Second's adulterous queen.

⁴ Triumphs of Edward the Third in France.

⁵ Death of that king, abandoned by his children, and even robbed in his last moments by his courtiers and his mistress.

⁶ Edward the Black Prince, dead some time before his father.

⁷ One account of Richard the Second's death is that he was destroyed by starvation. This is adopted by the poet here. Another story is given in the History, p. 62.

Heard ye the din of battle bray⁸,
 Lance to lance, and horse to horse?
 Long years of havoc urge their destined course,
 And through the kindred squadrons mow their way.
 Ye towers of Julius⁹, London's lasting shame,
 With many a foul and midnight murder fed,
 Revere his consort's¹ faith, his father's² fame,
 And spare the meek usurper's³ holy head.
 Above, below, the rose⁴ of snow,
 Twined with her blushing foe we spread:
 The bristled boar⁵ in infant gore
 Wallows beneath the thorny shade.
 Now, brothers, bending o'er th' accursed loom,
 Stamp we our vengeance deep, and ratify his doom.

III.

"Edward, lo! to sudden fate
 (Weave we the woof. The thread is spun.)
 Half of thy heart we consecrate⁶.
 (The web is wove. The work is done.)
 Stay, oh stay! nor thus forlorn
 Leave me unblest'd, unpitied, here to mourn:
 In yon bright track, that fires the western skies,
 They melt, they vanish from my eyes.
 But oh! what solemn scenes on Snowdon's height
 Descending slow their glittering skirts unroll?
 Visions of glory, spare my aching sight!
 Ye unborn ages, crowd not on my soul!

⁸ Ruinous civil wars of York and Lancaster.

⁹ Henry the Sixth, George Duke of Clarence, Edward the Fifth, Richard Duke of York, &c., believed to have been murdered secretly in the Tower of London. The oldest part of that structure is vulgarly attributed to Julius Cæsar.

¹ Margaret of Anjou, a woman of heroic spirit, who struggled hard to save her husband and her crown.

² Henry the Fifth, the conqueror at Agincourt.

³ Henry the Sixth, very near being canonized. The line of Lancaster had no right of inheritance to the crown.

⁴ The white and red roses, devices of York and Lancaster.

⁵ The silver-boar was the badge of Richard the Third; whence he was usually known in his own time by the name of The Boar.

⁶ Eleanor of Castile died a few years after the conquest of Wales. The heroic proof she gave of her affection for her lord is well known. The monuments of his regret, and sorrow for the loss of her, are still to be seen at Northampton, Geddington, Waltham, and other places.

No more our long-lost Arthur⁷ we bewail.
All-hail, ye genuine kings⁸; Britannia's issue, hail!

“ Girt with many a baron bold
Sublime their starry fronts they rear;
And gorgeous dames, and statesmen old,
In bearded majesty, appear.
In the midst a form divine!
Her eye proclaims her of the Briton-line;
Her lion-port, her awe-commanding face,
Attemper'd sweet to virgin-grace.
What strings symphonious tremble in the air!
What strains of vocal transport round her play!
Hear from the grave, great Taliessin⁹, hear;
They breathe a soul to animate thy clay.
Bright Rapture calls, and soaring, as she sings,
Waves in the eye of Heaven her many-colour'd wings.

“ The verse adorn again
Fierce War, and faithful Love,
And Truth severe, by fairy Fiction drest.
In buskin'd measures¹ move
Pale Grief, and pleasing Pain,
With Horror, tyrant of the throbbing breast.
A voice², as of the cherub-choir,
Gales from blooming Eden bear;
And distant warblings³ lessen on my ear,
That lost in long futurity expire.
Fond impious man, think'st thou, yon sanguine cloud,
Raised by thy breath, has quench'd the orb of day?
To-morrow he repairs the golden flood,
And warms the nations with redoubled ray.

⁷ It was the common belief of the Welsh nation, that King Arthur was still alive in Fairy-land, and should return again to reign over Britain.

⁸ Both Merlin and Taliessin had prophesied, that the Welsh should regain their sovereignty over this island; which seemed to be accomplished in the house of Tudor.

⁹ Taliessin, chief of the bards, flourished in the sixth century. His works are still preserved, and his memory held in high veneration among his countrymen.

¹ Shakspeare.

² Milton.

³ The succession of poets after Milton's time.

Enough for me : with joy I see
 The different doom our Fates assign.
 Be thine Despair, and scepter'd Care :
 To triumph, and to die, are mine."
 He spoke, and headlong from the mountain's height
 Deep in the roaring tide he plunged to endless night."
Gray's Bard.

THE CLAIMS OF THE LINE OF YORK OVER THAT OF LANCASTER.

WAR. Sweet York, begin ; and if thy claim be good,
 The Nevills are thy subjects to command.

YORK. Then thus :
 Edward the Third, my lords, had seven sons :
 The first, Edward the Black Prince, Prince of Wales ;
 The second, William of Hatfield ; and the third,
 Lionel Duke of Clarence ; next to whom
 Was John of Gaunt, the Duke of Lancaster ;
 The fifth was Edmund Langley, Duke of York ;
 The sixth was Thomas of Woodstock, Duke of Glo'ster ;
 William of Windsor was the seventh and last.
 Edward the Black Prince died before his father,
 And left behind him Richard, his only son,
 Who, after Edward the Third's death, reign'd king ;
 Till Henry Bolingbroke, Duke of Lancaster,
 The eldest son and heir of John of Gaunt,
 Crown'd by the name of Henry the Fourth,
 Seized on the realm ; deposed the rightful king ;
 Sent his poor queen to France from whence she came,
 And him to Pomfret⁴ ; where, as you all know,
 Harmless King Richard trait'rously was murther'd.

WAR. Father, the duke hath told the truth ;
 Thus got the house of Lancaster the crown.

YORK. Which now they hold by force, and not by right ;
 For Richard the first son's heir being dead,
 The issue of the next son should have reign'd.

SAL. But William of Hatfield died without an heir.

YORK. The third son, Duke of Clarence, from whose line
 I claim the crown, had issue Philippe, a daughter,
 Who married Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March.
 Edmund had issue, Roger Earl of March :
 Roger had issue, Edmund, Anne, and Eleanor.

⁴ Shakspeare adopts the account of Richard the Second's death given in the History, p. 62, viz. that he was murdered at Pontefract or Pomfret castle.

SAL. This Edmund, in the reign of Bolingbroke,
As I have read, laid claim unto the crown;
And, but for Owen Glendower, had been king;
Who kept him in captivity, till he died.
But to the rest——

YORK. His eldest sister, Anne,
My mother, being heir unto the crown,
Married Richard Earl of Cambridge,
Who was the son to Edmund Langley,
Edward the Third's fifth son.——
By her I claim the kingdom: she was heir
To Roger Earl of March, who was the son
Of Edmund Mortimer, who married Philippe,
Sole daughter unto Lionel Duke of Clarence.
So, if the issue of the elder son
Succeed before the younger, I am king.

WAR. What plain proceeding is more plain than this?
Henry doth claim the crown from John of Gaunt,
The fourth son; York here claims it from the third.
Till Lionel's issue fail, his should not reign:
It fails not yet, but flourisheth in thee
And in thy sons, fair slips of such a stock.
Then, father Salisbury, kneel we together,
And in this private plot be we the first,
That shall salute our rightful sovereign,
With honour of his birth-right to the crown.

BOTH. Long live our sov'reign Richard⁵, England's king!
Shakspeare.—Henry VI. Part 2.

QUEEN ELIZABETH AND THE SPANISH ARMADA.

CALL back the gorgeous past,
Where bright and broadening to the main
Rolls on the scornful river.
Stout hearts beat high on Tilbury's plain:
Our Marathon for ever.

Leapt the loud joy from earth to heaven,
As through the ranks asunder riven,
The warrior-woman rode.
Hark! thrilling thro' the armed line
The martial accents ring,
"Though mine the woman's form, yet mine
The heart of England's king!"

⁵ This Richard, the father of Edward the Fourth, never actually came to the throne, but was beheaded in 1460. See History, p. 68.

[H. s. 1.]

Woe to the island and the maid !
 The Pope has preach'd the New Crusade⁶,
 His sons have caught the fiery zeal :
 The monks are merry in Castile ;
 Bold Parma on the main ;
 And through the deep exulting sweep
 The thunder-steeds of Spain.
 What meteor rides the sulphurous gale ?
 The flames have caught the giant sail ;
 Fierce Drake is grappling prow to prow ;
 God and St. George for victory now !
 Death in the battle and the wind,
 Carnage before and storm behind ;
 Wild shrieks are heard above the hurtling roar
 By Orkney's rugged strands and Erin's ruthless shore.
 Joy to the island and the maid !
 Pope Sixtus wept the Last Crusade.

E. L. Bulwer's Ode on the Last Days of Elizabeth.

THE SOVEREIGNS OF ENGLAND FROM CHARLES II. TO GEORGE I.

THOU Kneller, long with noble pride,
 The foremost of thy art, hast vied
 With nature in a generous strife,
 And touch'd the canvas into life.
 Thy pencil has, by monarchs sought,
 From reign to reign in ermine wrought,
 And, in the robes of state array'd,
 The kings of half an age display'd.
 Here swarthy Charles appears, and there
 His brother with dejected air :
 Triumphant Nassau here we find,
 And with him bright Maria join'd ;
 There Anna, great as when she sent
 Her armies through the continent,
 Ere yet her hero was disgraced :
 O may famed Brunswick be the last,
 (Though Heaven should with my wish agree,
 And long preserve thy art in thee)
 The last, the happiest British king,
 Whom thou shalt paint, or I shall sing !

⁶ The expedition, called "the Invincible Armada," was considered a sort of crusade or religious war, for the extermination of what the Romanists called heresy in England.

Wise Phidias thus, his skill to prove,
Through many a god advanced to Jove,
And taught the polish'd rocks to shine.
With airs and lineaments divine;
Till Greece, amazed, and half-afraid,
Th' assembled deities survey'd.

Great Pan, who wont to chase the fair,
And loved the spreading oak, was there;
Old Saturn too with upcast eyes
Beheld his abdicated skies;
And mighty Mars, for war renown'd,
In adamantine armour frown'd!
By him the childless goddess rose,
Minerva, studious to compose
Her twisted threads; the web she strung,
And o'er a loom of marble hung:
Thetis, the troubled ocean's queen
Match'd with a mortal, next was seen,
Reclining on a funeral urn,
Her short-lived darling son to mourn.
The last was he, whose thunder slew
The Titan race, a rebel crew,
That from a hundred hills ally'd
In impious leagues their king defy'd.

This wonder of the sculptor's hand
Produced, his art was at a stand:
For who would hope new fame to raise,
Or risk his well-establish'd praise,
That, his high genius to approve,
Had drawn a George, or carved a Jove?

*Addison's Ode to Sir Godfrey Kneller, on his
Picture of the King, George I.*

GENERAL WOLFE AND LORD CHATHAM.

THEY have fallen
Each in his field of glory; one in arms
And one in council. Wolfe, upon the lap
Of smiling victory that moment won;
And Chatham, heartsick of his country's shame.
They made us many soldiers. Chatham, still
Consulting England's happiness at home,
Secured it by an unforgiving frown

If any wrong'd her. Wolfe, where'er he fought,
 Put so much of his heart into his act,
 That his example had a magnet's force,
 And all were swift to follow where all loved.

Cowper.—*Time-piece.*

NELSON AND PITT.

WHAT powerful call shall bid arise
 The buried warlike and the wise;
 The mind that thought for Britain's weal,
 The hand that grasp'd the victor steel?
 The vernal sun new life bestows
 Even on the meanest flower that blows;
 But vainly, vainly may he shine,
 Where glory weeps o'er NELSON's shrine;
 And vainly pierce the solemn gloom
 That shrouds, O PITT, thy hallow'd tomb!

Deep grav'd in every British heart,
 O never let those names depart!
 Say to your sons,—Lo! here his grave,
 Who victor died on Gadite wave⁸;
 To him, as to the burning levin,
 Short, bright, resistless course was given.
 Where'er his country's foes were found,
 Was heard the fated thunder's sound,
 Till burst the bolt on yonder shore,
 Roll'd, blazed, destroy'd,—and was no more.

Nor mourn ye less his⁹ perish'd worth,
 Who bade the conqueror go forth,
 And launch'd the thunderbolt of war
 On Egypt, Hafnia¹⁰, Trafalgar;
 Who, born to guide such high emprise,
 For Britain's weal was early wise;
 Alas! to whom the Almighty gave,
 For Britain's sins, an early grave.

Sir Walter Scott.—Introd. to Marmion, Canto I.

⁷ Nelson.

⁸ The Bay of Cadiz was anciently called Sinus Gaditanus, and the Strait of Gibraltar, Fretum Gaditanum.

⁹ Pitt.

¹⁰ Copenhagen.

THE END.



DEC 11 1953

